

The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII NUMBER 6

Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

OCTOBER, 1947

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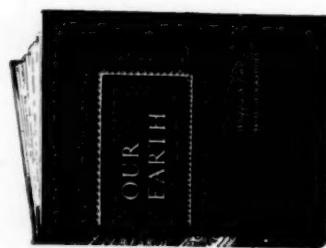
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The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 6

OCTOBER, 1947

History Through Biographical Lenses

VICTOR L. ALBJERG

Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana

In 1908 the loquacious William II expressed himself on the strong-man theory of government. "The big things in the world," he said "are always done by a man—one man—one personality. History in times of crises cries out for a man of absolute fearlessness, one who knows what he wants and goes straight for it . . . Parliaments may criticize, parliaments may hold back, parliaments may be wise, but parliaments don't do things. You may gather all the wisdom in the world in a parliamentary chamber, but you will never get action out of a parliament. One man has got to lead."

The above could be dismissed as the idle drivel of a pompous autocrat of a bygone era except for the fact that his thesis of strong-man government has been endorsed by scholars of good repute. Conyers Read in *The Tudors* observed: "This much at least is certain that Elizabeth was the all important person in England of her time, and her personality probably the most influential factor in shaping the history of it. Without Elizabeth many things might have happened but certainly not Elizabethan England." Harry Elmer Barnes insists that "the assassination of Rathenau was perhaps the most momentous and tragic act in the 20 years that separated the two world wars. Republican Germany was not able to produce another leader who even faintly approximated his political stature or understood the wisdom of his policies." Edward Hayes O'Neil in his *American Biography* claims that "without

Washington's dominant spirit, his strength of character and his spiritual force, there never would have been a United States of America." George Macaulay Trevelyan in *British History in the Nineteenth Century* reflects upon the importance of Castlereagh: "If Castlereagh's mind had not given way that month, or if his attendants in removing his razors had not overlooked the fatal penknife, George Canning would have started on his long sailing voyage to Bengal as Governor-General and the history of England would have taken a different course."

Many Germans in the nineteenth century believed that Leon Gambetta was their unyielding foe, and when he died they felt more secure behind the Rhine. The German press did not hesitate to announce its relaxation. Wrote the *Berliner Tageblatt*: "Gambetta, the man of implacable revenge is dead, and his decease will bring us more peace than diplomatic alliances . . . The New Year's bells which rang in the death of Gambetta have sent us chimes of peace over the Vosges."

Furniss in his volume, *A New State Faces a Difficult World*, says that it would be difficult "to refute the claim that Kemal alone made Turkish history in the post-war period." Furniss credits Kemal with imposing upon Turkey a peaceful revolution and concludes his estimate of him by saying: "Without Attaturk who can say that Turkey as such would even exist today?"

Wallace Notestein wrote in 1916 that As-

quith had "offered the chancellorship to Morley. What chances of history rest upon the fact that Morley did not accept and that Lloyd George took the place." If Mussolini had been killed in 1916 when his light field piece back-fired and only wounded him, there might not have been any Abyssinian War. Or suppose that Hitler had died of gas poisoning which afflicted him in 1918, would not history have been deviated a little? Suppose Churchill had been shot instead of captured by Louis Botha in 1899, who then would have imparted to Englishmen the requisite courage and determination to defy the Germans in 1940?

The astute politician knows that: "Things don't happen; they are brought together." To assert that historical evolution comes to fruition despite individual personalities is at best a leap in the dark. It is no more true than is Carlyle's assertion that: "History is the essence of innumerable biographies" unless the number of such biographies ran into infinity. Certainly the great historical figures become the spearheads of movements, and in many cases furnish the energy which projects them into realization. The expression that strikes failed, legislative programs died, or some other project miscarried because of faulty leadership is commonplace. Perhaps Walt Whitman had this in mind when he proclaimed: "Produce great persons, the rest follows."

Strong men are vital and influential elements in the social and political compound. Indeed, Andrew Jackson insisted that one man with a conviction was a majority. In the field of cooking, by omitting the most vital ingredient in a recipe, one alters materially the ultimate dish that it is supposed to produce. The most resolute and significant factors in a local community or in the nation at large constitute the political baking powder or social yeast. Delete them and the community won't rise.

The discussion under consideration might well be closed here, except for the fact that another school of philosophers hold the thesis that the great men do not lead, but that forces impel them to the top. Indeed, Lincoln viewed himself as the exponent of the period in which he lived, for he said: "I do not create events, but events create me." William Jennings Bryan held the same thesis. In response to an inquiry

on that question by Mark Sullivan, the Great Commoner replied: "You are entirely correct in describing public men as the creatures of their age. I have often used the same explanation in regard to myself. I lived in the very center of the country out of which reforms grew, and was quite naturally drawn to the people's side."

Professor G. N. Clark in his volume, *The Later Stuarts*, supports this contention. "Kings," he said, "are symbols and James II's history is the history of that which he symbolized." Leaders, Professor Clark believes, are merely the visible image of the movements which they can neither advance nor retard. Even Bismarck toyed with this theory, for in conversation with Napoleon III he reminded the French Emperor that: "We cannot create events, we can only allow them to ripen," and, in corroboration, he asserted after the Austro-Prussian War that a Franco-Prussian War was in "the logic of events." There would have been German unification even if there had been no Bismarck. Likewise there would have been Italian unification even if there had been no Cavour. There would have been emancipation of the Russian serfs without an Alexander II. Similarly Negro slavery in the United States, according to Professor Ramsdell of the University of Texas, would have come to an end without Lincoln. The imperative of Southern economics was already, before 1860, denouncing colored servitude more effectively than, though not so loudly as, did the New England conscience.

The historians mentioned here believe that men who are supposed to formulate events deal with highly intractable material, the common will of their fellow-men, and that this can be molded only in accordance with trends which have preceded the characters of history. The so-called "great men" fit the popular movement, whether of thought or of action. Their individual peculiarities placed them at the apex of the era in which they lived. Had they appeared on the scene a generation earlier or later they would have been lost in anonymity. But the crucible of history drafted them as heralds of the future. Had there been no Revolutionary War, Washington would have remained the "first farmer of Virginia"; had there been no

slavery and secession Lincoln would have continued his lucrative law practice in Springfield; if there had been no depression in 1929 Hoover would have been re-elected in 1932—and, perhaps, in 1936—and perpetuated the Republican ascendancy. It is difficult to see how the Hyde Park Squire would ever have become the White House occupant.

The strong man, some assert, is the leader who points the way which his followers have blazed. They maintain that he dramatizes the doctrine of the local politician who announced; "I am their leader so I have to follow," or of another who wound up his final election appeal by declaring, "Them's my sentiments; if you don't like them, I can change them."

What then is the service of biography? It reveals that leaders not only lead, but that they also are led, that the leaders not only receive their mandates from their followers, but that they also impose their imprint upon their constituents. The populace, inchoately but irresistibly, formulate the strategy of historical development; the leader is the tactician who executes the strategy of the masses. That Germany, after 1918, should attempt a war of revenge was "written in the stars." Its peculiar violence to the minorities, its recklessness and at certain periods its stupidity in prosecution were Hitler's personal contributions, factors that destroyed millions of lives. His legacy of hate still suffuses a whole continent and dashes upon the shores of others. Hatred there would have been after the conflict, but its penetrating bitterness is another Hitlerian heritage. And so while each strong man has been the agent of destiny's evolution he has left his trade mark on history's bill of goods.

Biography also simplifies history by focusing movements in the struggles of one man. The progressive movement in the United States is exposed in bold relief in the life of Robert M. LaFollette, Sr. In the trials, triumphs and tragedy of the late Governor Olson of Minnesota one senses the agony, indignation, hopes and fears of farmers and laborers in their effort to secure a fair reward for their toil in a business and banking controlled economy. In the biography of Jay Gould is personalized the ability, daring, imagination, arrogance and corruption of American industrial development.

Freeman's life of Robert E. Lee is not only the portrayal of a Southern military leader but also a reflection of the mood and mind of the dominant class in slavery. One scene of Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath*, really the biography of the Joad family, put into dialogue, summarizes more of human hope and pity than all the joint resolutions of Congress, obiter dicta of the Supreme Court or proclamations of the President on the subject. Facts interest us primarily as they have human significance. Divorce them from joys and sorrows, pains and pleasures, exaltation and agony and they lose their appeal. Biography therefore seizes upon man as a human being. It recalls to us the fact that history is the study of man, not merely an investigation of blind metaphysical forces dissociated from human feelings. It furnishes history at low reader resistance.

Biography also provides the historian with a mine of information. Defeated senators have been known to spend their remaining years writing, *While I Remember*, and there include what colleagues with meaningful winks have whispered under their breath. The Duke de Morny once remarked, "When you talk to me I do not listen to what you say, but to what you think." In intimate conversations political leaders say what they think, and now and then these are recorded in biographies and autobiographies. And this is the essence of history. Or if a politician has been thoroughly angered, drops his inhibitions, and writes a well-documented account, then he contributes an ore of high historical content.

Napoleon once accused all mankind of being little Napoleons, people with the same ambitions, pride, vanity and brutishness that he possessed but with considerably less ability. Man's chief interest is man and his environment. So far we have no mechanical device to analyze, classify and evaluate man's characteristics. In lieu of that deficiency we are compelled to gratify our absorbing interest by reading biographies. And in so doing we do not get photographs of our subjects, but we do get portraits.

Biography also widens one's list of friends. One may not be able to associate with the local bon ton, shabby as it may be, but one can indulge in intimate camaraderie with the noblest

and the best of all ages merely by going to the library. One can take Beethoven out for one week-end, Schopenhauer for a second and Aristotle for a third. One can spend a whole vacation with an entire gamut of celebrities—and feel under no obligations to them, and they will take no offense. By reading biographies of celebrities we become unseen guests in their homes, invisible auditors in their offices, omni-

present associates in their activities. It gives one an opportunity to commune with saints, or, if one desires, to rub shoulders with rascals.

Biography, therefore, constitutes an important part of history. In fact history without biography would be something like rest without relaxation, food without flavor, and almost like romance without love.

Bankruptcy in Education

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America's oldest, biggest and most important business is rapidly going into bankruptcy. This fact is of serious concern to one million employees, 30 million daily customers, and to the 140 million stockholders whose capital investments are found in every city, hamlet, and neighborhood from one end of the United States to the other. Yes, that very cornerstone of American Democracy—the American Public School—is going into bankruptcy because of an acute shortage of competent and qualified employees—teachers. The present shortage of public school teachers is not a condition that developed overnight, and by the same token it cannot be remedied overnight, although it can be relieved. For about a decade now it has been increasingly difficult to locate top-notch teachers. There are three primary reasons for the current teacher shortage; three reasons why more of the best minds are leaving the classroom each year than are coming into it; three reasons why the general quality of instruction has been deteriorating. They are salary, social restrictions, and security.

People who go into teaching do so by-and-large because they are idealistic and altruistic. They like to work with young folks. They like to feel that in some small way they are helping the child to find himself, that they are making this great democratic nation just a little bit better place in which to live, and that they are helping to promote international understanding and goodwill.

Most teachers realize that they can never ex-

pect to receive as much pay for services in the classroom as they could get in other professions or in business; they realize, too, that rightly or wrongly, the salaries received for public services through taxes will be lower than the salaries paid for comparable training and services in private business and in other professions. The enjoyment and satisfaction that can come only from watching and guiding the development of a child are partial compensation for the differential. But teachers have a justifiable right to expect and to receive a salary that is modestly commensurate with the nature of their work and training, with other comparable professional groups, and with changing standards of living. It is a cold hard fact that in purchasing teacher-services, as with most everything else, one gets just about what he pays for. Many communities, unfortunately for the boys and girls, have found this out. Too many of us think in terms of the Little Red Schoolhouse and teacher of yesterday. We fail to realize that the teacher of today frequently has training and competence in the field of his professional specialization comparable to that of the lawyer and dentist and not infrequently comparable to that of the doctor of medicine.

Another factor which militates against attracting and holding men and women in educational work is the ring of restrictions, inhibitions and taboos with which teachers are hemmed in. There are regulations against smoking, dancing, dating, use of make-up,

wearing of jewelry, and many others. Teachers are human. They want to live normal lives and do things pretty much the same as most everyone else. At the same time they are aware of the fact that the very nature of their work, like that of the doctor, the clergyman, and the dentist, demands that in the conduct of the day's work, and to a limited extent outside, there are certain things which they may and may not do. The teacher in most cases probably is the best judge of what to do and what not to do.

The insecurity of their teaching positions is a nightmare to most teachers. The very process of yearly election or rejection produces a vicious cycle. Many teachers receive one-year contracts in the late spring. They begin teaching in September. Between Thanksgiving and Christmas they begin to wonder if they will be re-elected for the next school year, and frequently they begin to look for a new job. The school board meets in early spring to elect and reject. There is an agonizing period of suspense until the action of the board is known. Teachers are prevented from doing an efficient and effective job in the classrooms with boys and girls as a result of this nearly year-round uncertainty. Many capable and highly regarded teachers who have served the same community for years have stated privately that they frequently have had misgivings.

A very few states have state-wide tenure laws. Such laws have been voided in some states by the courts; in others they have been repealed by the voters. Most large cities have so-called permanent tenure. Under such statutes teachers who have served the required probationary period can be dismissed only through court action and for specific and proven cause. However, the majority of all teachers in the United States are subject to state laws or customs which decree that teachers shall be elected for one school-year only, and that they must stand re-election each year thereafter.

The yearly re-election of school teachers is an archaic anachronism and a potent factor in the teacher shortage picture. The teacher, whose position is both an office of public trust and a profession, must submit to a yearly appraisal of his qualifications and competence by a lay board whose membership changes frequently, while large numbers in various other

occupational groups, both public and private, are appointed for a period of years or have statutory assurance of security in their jobs.

Permanent tenure for teachers might be a worthwhile objective when desirable minimum standards have been established and achieved. In the meantime a system of term contracts should be instituted, preferably on a state-wide basis. Such a plan might work like this: a teacher's first contract in a new school system would run for one year; his re-election would be for two years; subsequent reappointments, after this three-year probationary period, would be for seven-year terms. Dismissal would be possible only through the courts and for proven incompetence, incapacity, insubordination, and immorality.

Such a system of term contracts (1) would give the teacher a sense of security and make for more effective classroom work; (2) would largely eliminate subjecting the teacher to the caprice and passing whims of school board members and the administrator; (3) would compel school boards and executives to make their selections of teachers carefully and prudently; (4) and would make it possible for a school board to raise its standards and the teachers to meet them during the seven-year term.

Our principal concern must be the present and future educational needs of our boys and girls. And those needs cannot be met with an inadequate supply of poorly trained teachers, even though the schools are open, the bell is ringing, and there is someone at the desk in the front of the school room. After all a school is simply a pupil and a teacher, with the teacher teaching and the pupil learning. But there can be little of either if the school is staffed with teachers whose qualifications are substandard. Any business is faced with bankruptcy if it continually loses large numbers of its highly trained personnel, if it experiences a large periodic turnover in personnel, and if it is unable to procure an adequate supply of even substandard replacements. The public school is no exception, though unfortunately the results may not be immediately discernible.

A critical situation exists in the schools today. It can be alleviated and eventually remedied if superior teachers can be shown oppor-

tunities in teaching which are modestly comparable to those in other fields, if a career in education can be made attractive to young people in college, and if many of those who have left the profession can be induced to re-

turn to the classroom. The principal elements needed to remedy the situation are good salaries, satisfactory working conditions, and security in employment.

Social Studies in the General Vocational School

HERMAN WESTERBERG

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An interesting and challenging situation exists for the teacher of social studies in the general vocational type of school. The philosophy of this form of education and the type of pupil involved makes this a unique opportunity for the interested teacher to build and teach a course that combines all of the theoretical requisites for the social studies.

The general vocational schools are part of the regular school system of Baltimore City. Many pupils in Baltimore find their needs met in the various curricular offerings of the junior and senior high schools of traditional concept. Others, however, have interests and abilities which can be better developed in a vocational type of curriculum. The general vocational schools occupy the third level in a four-level plan of vocational education. Roughly, they correspond to the junior high schools in the general complexion of the student body. Other levels correspond to the high schools and the elementary schools.

General vocational school pupils must have an I.Q. of 85 or better, ability to do seventh grade reading and arithmetic, low average or better mechanical aptitude, and be at least 14 years of age. Generally they transfer from junior high schools, but a minority enter through promotion from the next lower level of vocational education, the occupational schools. A few pupils are promoted to the next higher level, the vocational high schools. But for the large majority, the general vocational school is terminal education.

As indicated, two distinct types of pupils attend; one from the junior high schools and

the other from the occupational schools. According to a study made last year,¹ the typical junior high school transfer pupil has average intelligence, comes from 7A, is retarded one or more semesters, is between 14 and 15 years old, is irregular in attendance, has a record of two or three home addresses since entering elementary school, and comes from a home that is "broken" in some way. Occupational transfer pupils generally have a somewhat lower I.Q. and are older. Both groups are lacking, to some extent, in responsibility. Their contacts with formal education have not been satisfactory. Their attitude is often one of defiance. Characteristically they lack the "will" to learn. They come from homes where traditions of school graduation are lacking.

Experts in guidance and aptitude testing recommend the general vocational type of school for those pupils who seem likely to profit most from it. Many pupils, who can qualify, enter because economic pressure at home makes it necessary that they go to work at an early age and they genuinely desire some type of training which leads to employment. Others come with no intention of finishing the course, but merely desire a change in scenery while they wait until they are of age to drop out of school. Fortunately, many of the latter change their minds and stay on to finish. However, a large number drop out soon after entry. The student body is always in the process of change. Graduates leave generally at the end of a semes-

¹ An unpublished thesis presented by the author as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Master of Arts degree at the University of Maryland in 1946.

ter but often at any time during a semester. New pupils enter principally at the beginning of a semester, but "adjustment cases" enter at any time.

A study made at the University of Maryland a few years ago,² showed that vocational schools are not in agreement as to how social studies should function as part of the vocational education program. The traditional school social studies program, differing as it does throughout the country, seems standardized in comparison to the differences that exist between the social studies taught in the vocational schools of this country. Some schools narrow the course to a direct trade application. Others lift the social studies courses from the traditional schools and offer their pupils exactly what the pupils have associated with defeat and despair. Few have attempted to adjust their course to the type of school and pupil.

Actually the general vocational schools exist as a means of reaching the pupil with general education by appealing to his practical interests, restoring a sense of confidence in the pupil by showing him something he can do—and do well, and giving the pupil a salable skill that will give him a start in a dependable field of work. Courses in social studies exist as part of the pupil's general education. They are not related to carpentry more than to dressmaking. However, the content and method of instruction should differ somewhat from the social studies in the traditional type of school.

Since the general vocational school is for the most part terminal education, the social studies should not be "preparatory" for anything but life. We must face the paradox of presenting mature life problems to immature minds. In order to determine the extent of the content, we ask ourselves what a happy, healthy and useful citizen should know. The most we can presume is that the pupil has completed the social studies of the sixth grade and below. Then we attempt to determine how much of our objective is being fulfilled in his other subjects. The rest, we must assume, is up to the social studies.

We find that the boy should learn how to understand people. He should know how to use all the available conveniences for getting the most out of life. He should understand the problems of his democracy and be able to contribute his share of new ideas. He should learn how to take an active part in government. He must learn of the world of work and prepare to become a part of it. He must learn to find happiness and to enjoy life. He must learn to think about his own problems and the problems of the whole world. He must learn that success in social life and work life depends as much upon his attitudes as upon his skills. And he must understand that it is his responsibility to leave the world a little better than he found it. In short, he must learn how to become a healthy, happy, and useful citizen of his country and of the world. Naturally we cannot cover in two years what some people fail to gain in a lifetime. But we can select the most vital topics and at least give the pupils a nodding acquaintance with them. Such topics as "You Are Responsible," "You and the Future," "What Made America Strong?" "Democracy in Action," "How Did We Become a World Power?" "How to Make Vocational and Life Adjustments," "You and Your Health," "How to Get Along With People," and "How We Work Things Out Together," are samples of the dynamic realism of the units of learning. The question of intensive rather than extensive learning arises at this point. In the case of the general vocational school pupil, it is perhaps better that he know a little about a great many topics than know a lot about a few.

Not only must the content be more real, but the methodology must emphasize the spirit of salesmanship and showmanship. Good teaching procedure applies in the general vocational schools as well as in the traditional schools. But while the average pupil of a junior high school is likely to go ahead on his own initiative in spite of poor or indifferent teaching, the vocational pupil needs good teaching constantly. Perhaps he needs an increased use of such aids and devices as the teacher can provide. Surely the motion picture, strip film, radio, phonograph, and lantern slide are important aids to every teacher. But to teachers faced with pupils who are frankly scornful of "book learning," the aids mentioned above, to-

² An unpublished thesis presented by Floyd C. Faulkner as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Master of Arts degree at the University of Maryland in 1945.

gether with charts, graphs, and still pictures, must be employed constantly. Classes should be smaller than junior high school classes because the teacher cannot rely upon the pupil's individual initiative. Stimulating and challenging situations must be created for shorter periods of time and hence more often.

Units must be short, meaningful, and relatively independent of each other. This is necessary because the attention span of the pupil is short. Also, short independent units permit the adjustment pupil who enters in the middle of a term quickly to begin on an equal status with other members of his class. Even the boy who remains in school only a few months is able to *complete* something of value to him. The unit plan appeals to the pupils because the learning is organized into life-situation units, isolating some significant phase of the social environment. The ability to understand some type of life situation becomes the central objective of a unit of learning.

Trade courses are so organized that a boy

may enter at any time and finish at the end of two years. Classroom work must be organized to fall in line with this practice. The social studies course has been divided into 16 units. Units I through VIII are given one year and Units IX through XVI are given the next year. Then the process is repeated. Thus a pupil may enter at any time, remain for two years and complete all the units of learning.

In the United States, the vocational schools are much younger than the traditional schools. Our program is less definitely agreed upon. To some extent we are fumbling for the correct answer when it comes to determining what kind, how much, and in what way general education should be taught in these schools. Yet we are not faced with the myriad of restraints so familiar to the teacher in the traditional schools. We are groping in the dark in many ways. We must test and re-test our content, method and ideology. But we are faced with a challenge that makes our task the most interesting one in teaching.

The Arctic: Hub of Air Age Geography

FRANCES NORENE AHL

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The Arctic is the hub of air age geography. It is essentially the center of our world. Nine-tenths of the globe's population and three-fourths of its land area are in the Northern Hemisphere. These vast surface masses converge northward, impinging on the Arctic Ocean and encircling the Pole. "Through the Arctic"—according to General Spaatz, Chief of the Army Air Forces—"every industrialized country is within easy reach of our Strategic Air." But as Spaatz also emphasizes we are "similarly exposed"; we are actually "wide open at the top."

New York is but 4600 miles from Moscow—less than the distance from New York to Rio de Janeiro, or from Vancouver to London.

It took Columbus 70 days to make his famous voyage. Magellan's circumnavigation of the globe required nearly three years. Now commercial airliners commonly cross the Atlantic in 18 hours flying time. During World War II

we were frequently reminded that no place on the globe was more than 48 hours away. (Today it is probably less.) One pilot made 12 Atlantic crossings in 13 days, completing one round trip in less than 24 hours.

The Naval Air Transport Service carried more than one million passengers and flew nearly two billion passenger miles during the war.

Already postwar aviation progress has made the strategic bombers of the war obsolete. The famous B-29 has given way to the B-36, a super-super fortress that can accommodate 400 fully equipped infantrymen and carry enough fuel for a nonstop flight of 10,000 miles—sufficient to span the polar gap.

Some of the best military authorities, however, question the advisability of using such large planes for atomic warfare. (The B-36 is 163 feet long—almost twice as long as the B-29—and has a wingspread of 230 feet.) At

the time of writing, only 100 of these planes are on order.

Another remarkable product of aviation research is the Northrop Flying Wing. Without fuselage or tail, it transports its crew and its load in its massive wings.

Planes designed for supersonic flight—flight at speed in excess of sound—and drone planes—crewless planes operated by radio from other planes or from the ground—are among the most recent achievements in postwar aviation. Some six months ago two B-17's, as drones, flew the more-than-2000-mile stretch from Hawaii to California.

We have moved a long way from the world of Columbus and Magellan; yes, a long way even from our own world of 1941. We are living in an era entirely different from the era before Pearl Harbor.

Yet, declares Rear Admiral J. W. Reeves, commander of the NATS: "Military air transport is still in its infancy."

Air authorities anticipate the day when guided weapons will be shot from the center of one country at the industrial areas of an enemy power thousands of miles away. The Navy tells us that "just around the corner" is the jet-propelled automatic missile loaded with a ton of high explosives.

Secretary of State George C. Marshall, while still serving as Chief of Staff, pointed out that "The only effective defense a nation can now maintain is the power of attack."

At a recent Washington conference of women's patriotic organizations, General George C. Kenney, head of the United States Strategic Air Command, explained the possibility of atomic air attacks across the Arctic wastes of the polar basin. The Arctic may well become the crossroads of any future world conflict.

At the end of World War II, the United States emerged as the strongest, richest nation and as such is certain to be the first country attacked in case of another global conflict. Possibility of a surprise polar attack hangs over our people.

Today the United States, the world's greatest sea power, and Soviet Russia, the world's greatest land power, face each other across the North Pole. Canada is geographically sandwiched in between them.

Recent events clearly evidence the fact that these three nations are fully aware of the Arctic's significance in an age of long-distance planes and atomic bombs.

In May, 1946, the United States government made proposals to Canada for joint development of Arctic bases. In the 3000-mile "Operation Musk Ox" the Canadian Army investigated military techniques under arctic conditions. Naval tests were started by our aircraft carrier *Midway*. And more recently, air force maneuvers were inaugurated from bases at Fort Ladd, Alaska. Early in February, 1947, the Army engaged in a number of cold-weather operations—the Task Force Frigid near Fairbanks and the Task Force Williwaw in the Aleutians—testing its men and its equipment at temperatures of 45 degrees below zero.

As the polar concept developed, the United States became convinced of the need for bases in Greenland and Iceland. A glance at the map is sufficient to reveal the strategic significance of these islands in any immediate future program for Arctic defense.

Only after a stormy debate did Iceland's parliament ratify, on October 6, 1946, a treaty with our nation allowing our military planes continued use of Meeks Field. Rumors persist to the effect that the United States would like to purchase Greenland, but that Denmark fears the growing power and pressure of the Soviet Union.

Russia's defensive plans call for safeguarding the western approaches to her areas above the Arctic circle. It is for this very reason that she has suddenly become so interested in Spitsbergen. She sees in the Archipelago excellent possibilities for long-range operations in the polar regions.

For fully 15 years, the Kremlin has explored the navigational possibilities of the waters washing the vast northern shoreline of the Soviet Union. It is a known fact that Moscow has numerous weather stations in northern Siberia, and a considerable number of scientists at work feverishly studying the possibilities of the Arctic and planning additional experiments near the North Pole. The surrounding regions have an unfathomed wealth of iron, coal and oil, still practically untouched. But the real interest in the area is primarily overhead—in its trackless heavens.

The Arctic has many potentialities for the future. If the United States and Soviet Russia follow an independent, selfish course and refuse to cooperate for their own good and the good of the entire world, the Arctic seems destined to become the very center of conflict. If there is a third world war, the hub of air age geography will become the hub of the most

terrible devastation mankind has ever known. Devastation wrought by the forces of aviation, rockets and atomic energy would effect the virtual annihilation of civilization.

Clearly, the future of the Arctic depends upon our ability and our determination to build peace—just and lasting peace—in the Air Age.

The United States and Intervention in Russian Affairs in 1918

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America's new role of blocking the onrush of Communism by granting financial and military aid to small countries to help them survive as free nations, recalls the unsuccessful campaign of the Allies in 1918 to prevent the spread of Communism within Russia.

The signing of the treaties of Brest-Litovsk, March 3, 1918, was the cause of horror and consternation in the minds of Allied statesmen. The Prime Ministers and Foreign Ministers of the Entente, assembled in London, issued a statement, March 18, 1918, denouncing the foreign policy of the Soviet government which led to this separate peace with the Central Powers—"Peace treaties such as these we do not and cannot acknowledge."

This denunciation, however, was not followed by an immediate break in Russian-Allied relations, for it was by no means part of the Allied diplomacy, at this time, to abandon Russia to German control. Were they going to allow Germany to confiscate the large stores of munitions and supplies they had sent to Russia for the army during the old regime? Were they to permit Germany to use Russia as a means to frustrate the effective blockade they had maintained since the beginning of the war?

At first many of the Allied representatives consoled themselves with thinking that the Bolshevik Party would not long remain in power, but such misguided hopes faded as the months went by. Slowly they were led to realize the truth—Soviet Russia was out of the war. It now became the policy of the Allies to prevent Russia from extending help, either

active or passive, to the Central Powers. To carry out this purpose they adopted the attitude that the Soviet regime did not exist.

On the other hand the Bolshevik government was furious in its attacks on the Allies, declaring that the "Allies are abusing our patience," accused them of participating in and financing all counter-revolutionary conspiracies, and threatened to take drastic action unless they took their hands off Russian domestic affairs. In the meantime the Soviets began to transfer the stores of munitions and supplies at Archangel and Murmansk into the interior of Russia.

Kerensky, the leader of the Russian faction who favored the continuation of the war, busied himself in soliciting Allied aid in overthrowing the Bolshevik government. He met the American intelligence officers in Paris and strongly urged armed intervention by the Americans since the Russians believed in the disinterested motives of America in Europe. He suggested that entry be made by way of Archangel. About the same time David Francis, American Ambassador to Russia, visited Paris and strongly advocated armed intervention. He estimated that 100,000 men would save Russia from disaster.

General John Pershing was opposed to this, believing that nothing should be undertaken that would deplete Allied strength in France. The British, however, were insistent on sending troops to aid the White Russians in order to keep open communications through Murmansk. President Wilson was prevailed upon

and he directed Pershing to send a regiment of American troops, provided Foch had no objection.

In the meantime the first armed action took place in the Murmansk region of northern Russia. Some English and French troops were sent, in April, 1918, to reinforce the Russian guards of the North who faced the Finns at Kem. This force was later increased and among the reinforcements was a detachment of 200 American marines from the U.S.S. *Olympia*, under the command of Captain Bierer. In this section was then set up a Russian government independent of the Soviet and under the protection of the Allies.

The purpose of this Allied intervention was to prevent Germany from withdrawing its fighting force from the Russian front; from employing the resources of Russia and Siberia to reestablish its home industries, thereby supplying the needs of its civil population and annulling the effect of the Allied blockade; from establishing submarine bases from which U-boats could circumnavigate the mine fields of the North Sea and get into the Atlantic to endanger transportation of American troops. It was also directed against the Bolsheviks and the German-Finnish encroachment of Russia, with the idea of fostering an anti-German movement in Russia.

These ends were accomplished by the end of June, when the Allied forces advanced down the Kola peninsula along the railroad to Petrograd to capture Kem and Soroka, a strategic juncture on the road to Archangel.

It seems that if the remaining months of the war had been used merely to make these holdings more secure subsequent relations with the Soviet government might have been more cordial. However, the political factor could not be forgotten and military operations were pushed to the southward with the hope of establishing contact with the Czechs and anti-Soviet Russians along the Volga and the Don. In this they further irritated the Soviet government and placed themselves definitely on the side of the White Russians.

While the Soviet government emphatically protested "the invasion unprovoked by any aggressive measure on the part of Russia," and sought to ascertain the intentions of the Allies, the American Ambassador addressed the

Russian people, once again repudiating the Brest-Litovsk Treaty, expressing deep sympathy and friendship, and calling upon Russia to fight Germany. The German government protested to the Soviet government at this violation of Russian neutrality and demanded his deportation, but Tchicherin continued to cling to the hope of Russian-American cooperation. This hope, however, was fast becoming impossible due to the intensified intervention policy of the Allies.

During the summer of 1918 the Soviet government was confronted with numerous acts of terrorism and rebellion committed by its domestic enemies, who, it believed, were being actively aided by the Allied representatives who remained in Russia. A campaign against the Central Powers was started in July by the Socialist Revolutionary and Menshevist parties, marked by the assassination of the German Ambassador Mirbach and Field Marshal von Eichhorn, and the instigation of strikes and peasant uprisings. The agents of the Entente in Russia proceeded to do all in their power to encourage these anti-Bolshevik and anti-German elements.

The climax was reached in September when an Allied plot for the overthrow of the Soviet government was uncovered. Through bribery of the Red guards they intended to arrest and execute the Bolshevik leaders, destroy the strategic points and then summon the Allied forces from Murman to complete the task. The Soviet police raided the British Embassy, killed the naval attaché, and proceeded to arrest all British and French civilians in Moscow together with their Consuls. These arrests, along with delay in permitting Allied representatives to leave Moscow, were stressed by the Allies as clear evidence of Bolshevik bad faith and cynical disregard for International Law. Later all the Allied representatives left Moscow for Archangel.

In order to overcome these uprisings the Soviet government decided to fight violence with violence, and thus followed the so-called Red Terror. Wholesale arrests and executions were commenced in all urban centers. This caused a flood of protests from all nations denouncing those deeds "which call forth the indignation of the whole world." In Washington the Soviet decree of mass terror had produced a profound

impression. The American government's indecision and inaction were criticized in the Senate. "To stand aside," said Senator Borah, "while Russia is making this struggle, to offer neither aid nor counsel nor advice, is to fail in what is perhaps the uppermost task of the war." The United States addressed a note citing the friendship of the American government for the Russian people, and its horror at the indiscriminate slaughter of Russian citizens. This note had no effect and the Red Terror, like the Terror of the French Revolution, soon became the object of universal condemnation and furnished a most convenient moral support for the policy of intervention.

Meanwhile, Ambassador Francis and the diplomatic corps had abandoned Vologda for Archangel where they found a new local government in power. This provisional government under M. Tchaikovsky had overthrown the Bolsheviks and declared itself the "Provisional Government of the Country of the North." Its purpose was to overthrow the Soviet government with the aid of Allied troops. In August, General Poole, the British commander of the Allied expedition, with a force of 2000 men and the support of British and French warships, occupied Archangel. Columns were then pushed southward to assure the safety of the port.

Early in September the force at Archangel was increased by the arrival of additional American troops. The 339th Infantry under Lieutenant Colonel George Stewart, together with one battalion of engineers, one field hospital company and one ambulance company comprising 4700 men disembarked and asked for instructions. The whole force was subject to the orders of the British General Poole, who was in supreme command of all the Allied troops in North Russia. The local government, despite its realization that it owed its life to the Allied forces, had little faith in the sincerity of the motives which brought foreign armies to Russian soil. The American troops were objected to least, but Ambassador Francis found that "reconciling their presence with our government's declaration of Russian policy is a delicate task."

In the meantime a brisk warfare was going on further south between the Allied troops and the Soviet forces. The stores at Archangel

which the Allied soldiers were to protect had been removed into the interior by the retiring Bolshevik forces. The Allied troops were sent in pursuit, whether to learn the whereabouts of the stores or for other purposes neither officers nor men seemed to have the slightest idea. By September the Allied contingents had advanced 75 miles south of Archangel, the American troops occupying Shenkursk, a town of 4000 inhabitants and the second largest in the province. In October the Allies encountered more serious resistance by the Red army along the Dvina River; however, they continued their advance in other directions, cleared Karelia of the Bolsheviks and proceeded along the railroad in the direction of Petrograd.

These activities were continued but the Allied troops began to chafe under the hardships. Rumors of peace led to the mutiny of a French company and to serious unrest and disaffection among the American troops as well. The actual close of hostilities in France and Italy further lowered the morale of the Allied soldiers. No move for their withdrawal was made, and they were doomed to a long stay, frozen in at Archangel.

The troops were widely scattered in the forest, having advanced from Archangel with little plan until their outposts, in the words of one observer, resembled "a seven-fingered hand, with one finger 300 miles long and with no lateral communication between the fingers." These isolated fronts were defended by block houses and simple trench fortifications against growing Soviet armies. Vologda remained the objective, but hopes of reaching it were fading.

The outcome depended not only upon the decisions of the Peace Conference, but also upon the results of intervention in Siberia (where some 70,000 Japanese and 7000 Americans, augmented by small British and French forces, operated out of Vladivostok holding strategic points and guarding the Trans-Siberian and Chinese Eastern Railways) and of the civil war of the Whites and Reds being fought throughout the entire country. The White expeditions were supplied by the Allies with money, equipment and instructors but one after another they were defeated by the Red forces. This bewildering collapse of the White forces indicated the hostility of the people toward foreign intervention. In August, 1919, the Ameri-

can troops were withdrawn from Archangel and Murmansk, and the British and other Allied forces soon followed.

The presence of Allied troops in northern Russia disturbed the plans of the Germans and

compelled them to retain sizable military contingents in the East at a time when they were sorely needed on the Western Front. Thus the original purposes of Allied intervention were achieved.

Political Science Offerings in Liberal Arts Colleges

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With increasingly pressing demands being made on educational institutions for effective citizenship training, the role of political science instruction in higher institutions becomes ever more important. Since a significant portion of the college student population is found in the small and medium sized liberal arts colleges, the significant role to be played by such schools in preparing civic leaders is apparent. This fact led the writer to seek a picture of what the liberal arts college is doing in the field of political science instruction.

Munro's study of political science instruction in colleges and universities (1930) found: that in only a small percentage of the institutions was such work a requirement for graduation; that there was no uniformity of practice as to the undergraduate year in which such a required course was to be taken; and that "in most institutions the introductory course in political science is not a rigid prerequisite for other courses in the subject."¹

To secure an up-to-date picture of political science course offerings in the small and medium-sized liberal arts colleges, the writer chose a random sample of 100 such co-educational institutions. All sections of the country were represented, approximately in proportion to the total number of colleges in those areas. Enrollments in the 100 colleges ranged from 100 to 1,000, with a median enrollment of 435. Data were obtained from college catalogs and other publications, and to a lesser extent from personal investigation.

Political science work in American colleges was long tied closely with the work in history; and the two subjects are still taught in the same department in 37 of the 100 colleges studied. In 53 of the schools, political science comprises a separate department. Five other combinations were found, with the number of cases indicated: general social science, four; political science and sociology, two; political science and economics, two; political science, economics, and sociology, one; political science and philosophy, one. In most cases where political science is combined with some other subject, a substantially larger number of courses is listed for the other subject.

The general pattern is to make a course in American government the first or basic course in the department. This is found in 83 of the 100 colleges, in 49 of which the course covers one semester's work and in 34 of which it covers two semesters' work. In three other colleges, the first two-semester courses offered are American government and a general "principles" course (in that order). In three other schools, the first two-semester courses are reversed. Another group of three schools make the first offering a one-semester "principles" course. The eight remaining schools feature first courses involving varying combinations of the following: American government and "principles"; American government and international relations; and American government and comparative government. When both a "principles" course and one in American government are offered, the American course usually comes first. However, the "principles" course is sometimes given on the junior or senior level. When the first

¹ William B. Munro, "Instruction in Political Science in Colleges and Universities," *American Political Science Review* 24:127-145, Appendix VII (1930).

<i>Course</i>	(1) No. of Sem. Courses Listed	(2) No. of Schools Offering Such Courses	(3) No. of Schools Giving More than One Semester	(4) Rank of (1) and (2) Among Categories (1)	(5) Among Categories (2)
International:					
International law	32	29	3	9	7
International relations	93	59	25	1	2
Comparative government	90	65	24	2	1
American foreign relations	35	25	9	7	9
Far East	6	6	0	15	13
Latin America	4	4	0	17	15
Political geography	4	4	0	17	15
Political theory:					
History of political theory	63	37	24	3	4
General (various types)	9	9	0	13	11
Public opinion	5	5	0	16	14
Government and the economic order:					
Government and economic life	14	10	4	11	10
Public finance	8	8	0	14	12
Government and labor	3	3	0	18	16
Government and administration:					
Public administration	61	35	17	4	5
State government	10	10	0	12	10
Local government	33	28	3	8	8
State and local government	29	29	0	10	7
Political parties	37	33	4	6	6
Constitutional law	52	41	11	5	3
Business law	6	5	1	15	14

course is a one-semester unit in American government, the second semester course is often one in state and local government.

The number of political science courses offered ranges from one to twenty-three semesters, with an average of 8.14 per school. Sixty-three per cent of the schools offered eight semester courses or less.

The above table groups the course offerings in the colleges studied and indicates for each type of course the frequency with which it is listed. (Beginning course excluded; see above.)

A glance shows that the four groups rank as follows in number of semester courses listed: international 264 courses; government and administration 228 (plus 136 American government courses in 97 of the 100 colleges); political theory 77; government and the economic order 25. This table also shows that the various courses appear with the following frequency (column 5):

American government
 Comparative government
 International relations
 Constitutional law
 History of political theory
 Public administration
 Political parties
 State and local government
 International law
 Local government
 American foreign relations
 State government
 Government and economic life
 Political theory (general)
 Public finance
 The Far East
 Public opinion
 Business law
 Latin America
 Political geography
 Government and labor

A few words should be said regarding the nature and frequency of each of the principal types of courses offered.

In the international field, the course most frequently offered is international relations, if there is only one offering in this field. But occasionally we find international law as the only course offered. Rather frequently, when a full year course only is offered, it is a two-semester course covering international law and international relations. In the international relations course, the usual approach is at least in part historical. Some such courses, however, are devoted to "current international relations."

The course in comparative government is about as frequently found as that in international relations. Here, as in international relations, the typical offering is a one-semester course considering in turn the principal European governments. About one institution in three or four offers the course on a two-semester basis—about the same frequency as for international relations. The courses which include substantial consideration of non-European governments (Latin America, Asia, or both) are in the decided minority. An occasional institution offers a one-semester course in the Far East or Latin America or a combination of these two fields. Only four institutions report a course in political geography.

A fourth of the institutions report one or two semester courses in American foreign relations. Sometimes this is a course in the political science department, but more frequently it is in the history department with political science credit allowed.

More than a third of the schools offer work in the history of political theory, and more than half of those offering such work provide at least two semesters. When only one course is offered, it usually covers the whole period of history; but occasionally, this single course is devoted to the period since 1800 or to the history of American political thought. An occasional school offers a general course of topical nature such as current political thought, the nature of democracy, democracy *vs.* dictatorship, etc. Five schools offer courses in the field of public opinion, either given in the political science department or as courses in another department for which political science credit is allowed.

Courses on government and the economic

order are found in a few schools, listed under courses with that title or public finance and government and labor. These courses are sometimes taught by a political scientist, but usually they are courses in the economics department for which political science credit is given.

As indicated above, the typical introductory course is a one or two-semester offering in American government. Usually, even in a one-semester course, an attempt is made to cover the entire field of American government. A minority of schools restrict this one-semester introductory course to a study of national government, covering the rest of the field in one or more courses on state and local government.

About four schools out of ten offer a course in state and local government or in state government, while three out of ten offer a course in local government. The unit usually offered is "state and local government." A few offer "state and county government," with "local government" as a separate course. Thirteen schools give one or more courses in both state government and local government, or the combination state-local government and local government courses. An occasional institution offers a two-semester course in municipal government and administration with one semester devoted to each phase of the subject.

More than a third of the schools studied offer one or more semesters' work in the field of public administration, with half of these offering at least two semesters. Rather typically, an institution attempts to cover the whole field of public administration in a one- or two-semester course. An occasional school, however, offers one or more specialized courses such as administrative law, public personnel administration, or judicial administration.

A third of the schools offer a course in political parties, but in only four cases does the offering cover more than one semester. When a second semester is offered, it may deal specifically with problems of legislation.

Four schools out of ten offer a course in constitutional law or constitutional history or both, with a fourth of the schools offering such work giving two or more semesters. Some of the one-semester courses are merely a study of the constitution of the United States on a rather elementary level. In a number of cases, such a course fulfills a requirement for a state secondary school teacher's certificate.

None of the schools studied offered a course in methods of political science teaching. However, such a methods course covering the whole field of the social sciences is frequently offered. Such a course is often listed in the history department, but most frequently it is in the education department; and it is often taught by a historian.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This brief study of political science offerings in small and medium-sized American liberal arts colleges presents the following conclusions. Since the typical college offers twenty-four semester hours credit or less in political science courses, a student in such a college can get a bare major in the field and in a large percentage of cases only a fairly good minor.

It seems essential that the average college should substantially expand its offerings toward solution of the increasingly complex and pressing problems of our modern world. Additional courses are especially needed in comparative government, public administration, and modern and contemporary political thought.

If a full quota of students is to be attracted to college political science courses, a better student foundation must be made in the secondary school. One means of improving such secondary school teaching is to provide at least a one-semes-

ter course in the methods of teaching political science or the social sciences in general.

Another factor in the expansion of political science offerings is that of providing for more required courses in the social science field. Fewer than a third of the schools studied required at least twelve semester-hours of social science work for graduation. Another third required between six and eleven hours for graduation; while at least five seemed to require no social science work for graduation. In only five cases is there a specific requirement of at least one course in political science. In six cases the only requirement is six hours of history; in six other cases it is specified that the total shall include six hours of history; and in two other cases other social science courses are specified. In most cases, the amount of science work required for graduation is substantially more than the amount of social science work required. It appears clear that more work in the social science field should be required for graduation. It also seems to the author that all colleges should require at least one political science course or provide a general social science survey course which gives adequate treatment to governmental factors.

These seem to be the minimum essentials if the small American liberal arts college is to do an adequate job of training for effective citizenship in our modern world.

The Character of the Japanese

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The Japanese are a people whose character appears to be a mass of contradictions. We know that in the recent struggle they showed many qualities which aroused both horror and admiration. They committed unspeakable atrocities, yet they were fanatically brave and filled with a will to conquer. Although the war provided us with an abnormal environment, if we look back to the years of peace before the outbreak of the "China incident" and recall the varying manifestations of Japanese life and behavior, we are completely at sea because they seem to be made up of contrasts so unnatural

and preposterous as to make one doubt the truth that seeing is believing. For example, they have a really exquisite sense of beauty and of the refinements of the arts, as well as an intense love of natural scenery, of flowers, of birds and butterflies, of running streams and waterfalls. These same people will in a moment become savage barbarians, taking to any outrage and cruelty with both gusto and enthusiasm.

What have the Japanese contributed to the thought and spiritual progress of the world? Almost nothing. Yet they were completely con-

vinced not merely of their divine mission to lead and rule the world but also of their unique fitness for the job. They talked much about, and truly admired, the virtue of sincerity, but in word and action they showed, as often as not, the precise opposite. But, they were not hypocrites. The mood of the moment was utterly genuine. Indeed it would seem that they were wholly incomprehensible; yet it is essential that we make some effort to comprehend them, for upon the soundness of that understanding will depend the kind of treatment to which the Japanese must be subjected, not only by the Allied governments but also by the Allied nationals who may be called upon to assist the Japanese during the years of reconstruction.

There is only one way by which something solid can be learned about Japanese character, and that is by ascertaining the conditions which shaped it, the general effect of the moral experiences of the race. Such facts we should find expressed or suggested in the racial origin of the people, in the history of their national beliefs, and of those social institutions derived from, and developed by, religion.

The people of Japan are of mixed racial origin, but it is impossible to state with exactitude the time and source of the different early migrations. The country has drawn her people and much of her culture from the north and central coastal regions of the Asiatic mainland as well as from the southern regions of the Pacific. The aboriginal inhabitants of Japan, known today as the Ainu, seem to have come into the country from an early Caucasoid stock of North and East Asia, probably going as far back as when Japan formed part of the Asiatic continent. From archaeological findings it is known that they lived in all the three main islands of present Japan. From the south came a Malayan strain from Southeast Asia and the Pacific islands. This migration, of outstanding importance in its effect on the character of the Japanese, appears to have split into two main streams; one of these came straight to Kyushu, the southern island of Japan, the other went to the Korean peninsula.

With the passing of centuries each of these migrations became powerfully influenced by the respective peoples among which they set-

tled. Those who settled in the Japanese islands found little difficulty in asserting their physical superiority over the Ainu, and they regarded themselves as conquerors and subduers. Though there was undoubtedly a certain amount of intermarriage with the aboriginal tribes, most of the latter who did not escape northwards before the invading hordes were kept as slaves. Thus the newcomers acquired a strong aristocratic tendency and arrogance, of conquest and superiority. Those who went to Korea, on the other hand, found themselves among a culture far superior to their own, that of China. Inferior in numbers, though of a sufficiently aggressive character to establish themselves in security, they were strongly impressed by the civilization and customs of China. As the centuries passed this had on them the reverse effect to that which the Ainu environment had on their racial brethren in Japan. There, the fierce, excitable Malayan characteristics had been emphasized and enhanced. In Korea it became more and more weakened. Intermarriage, too, was far more widely practiced on the mainland, with the result that the Malayan strain became subjected to the Mongolian until only a very small trace remained.

Then occurred an interesting event, for that same Korean peninsula became the source of another large migration into Japan, landing on the coast of Idzumo province just opposite Korea. Thus the two branches of the original migration were, after centuries of separation, united once again, but with the original racial strain so modified that they had become almost two different peoples. In the early records the two migrations are referred to by separate names: that which came directly to Japan from the South was called the Kumaso group, that from Korea, the Idzumo. The combination of the two groups, each supplying that which was lacking in the other, proved irresistible. Together they pushed their conquests northward until the whole of the central island of Honshu was completely overrun. The Ainu aborigines finally took refuge in the northern island of Hokkaido where their remnants, fast dying out, are still to be found. It was the merging of these two groups that formed the Japanese as we know them today, but though in the course of the centuries they became so blended as to

lose any marked distinction, yet two distinct types are still to be observed: the aristocratic type with the long, thin face, the aquiline nose, refined and sensitive, which is traditionally held to be of Kumaso origin; and the pudding faced peasant with sunken nose, wide nostrils, thick lips and protruding teeth, the relic of the Mongoloid migration of the Idzumo.

But whatever the difference in social station, appearance or habit, all are bound together by the same religious beliefs, and it is here that we must look for the real formative influences on character. The real religion of Japan, the religion still professed in one form or another by the entire nation, is ancestor worship. Though in the course of hundreds of years it has undergone various modifications, mainly through the impact of Buddhist and Chinese influence, its fundamental character remains unchanged. In the Japanese form of the ancestor worship cult there are three distinct rites, all classed under the name of Shinto, or the Way of the Gods. Those three rites are: the Domestic Cult, the Communal Cult, and the State Cult; in other words they concentrate respectively on the worship of Family Ancestors, the Clan or Tribal Ancestors, and the Imperial Ancestors. The first is the religion of the home, the second is the religion of the local divinity, while the third is the national religion.

The fundamental beliefs underlying ancestor worship are five in number: first, the dead remain in this world, they haunt their former homes and share in the life of their descendants; second, all the dead become *Kami*, that is, "gods" or "superiorities," but they retain the characteristics they had in life. It should be borne in mind, however, that the word *Kami* carries no moral qualification whatever. The potentiality of each individual, whether for good or evil, is hampered by the burden of his physical body. Freed by death, those potentialities have full play. Third, the happiness of the dead depends upon the attention given them by the living, and conversely, the happiness of the latter depends on their giving that attention; fourth, every event, good or evil, fair season, typhoon or earthquake, good harvests or famine, is the work of the dead; and fifth, all human actions are controlled by the dead. The modifications which Japanese ancestor

worship have undergone have not changed its essential character in relation to conduct. The whole framework of society rests upon it as upon a moral foundation. To such an extent is this true that in all matters it is the dead rather than the living who have been the rulers of Japan in the sense that it is they who have controlled the lives of her people in things of both the greatest import as of the most trivial, and who have thus been the shapers of the national destinies.

It is naturally the domestic rite of the home that affects most intimately the lives of the people. Indeed, it may be said that no religion is more sincere, no feeling more touching than this domestic worship which regards the departed as continuing to form part of the household, and being still in need of the affection and respect of their kindred. Unseen they are able to guard the home and watch over the welfare of its inmates. Each morning a small symbolic offering of food is placed upon a shelf before the homely shrine, with a few simple words of greeting and perhaps a petition for aid in any difficulty, and in the evening there is a little act of thanksgiving of the same simplicity.

But it must be remembered that the departed are also supposed to observe and hear all that happens in the house. They can also read thoughts. They represent the ever-present, all-seeing eye, the unwritten law, the tradition of the past, and any infringement of this is regarded as a sin against the dead, and he who persistently and wilfully commits such, is guilty of the supreme crime. From this conception arose that intricate and all-embracing code, known as "Filial Piety." This unwritten code does not apply, as is generally thought by the people of the West, only to the behavior of children to their parents. It means the right conduct of the individual in relation to the entire household. Thus it can be seen that though this domestic rite has its charming and domestic side, it cannot be otherwise than terribly cramping to the development of the character of the individual.

He must always regard his own conduct in relation not only to those about him, but also to the vast host of family ancestors stretching far back into the unknown past. His every

action must be in accordance with tradition, and with what the family desires. He can come to no individual decision lest it may adversely affect others around him. Yet this is by no means the whole story of the inhibitions to which he is subjected at every moment of his life. How rigidly the Japanese individual is bound can only be realized when we consider in addition the communal and state cults of Shinto.

Now, as the individual is ruled by the religion of the home in every act of his domestic life, so by the religion of the village or the district is his family ruled in all its relations to the outer world. The center of this religion is the "parish" shrine, sacred to the communal god, the *Ugigami*. Just as an offense within the family circle is regarded as an impiety towards the family ancestor, so any breach of village or district custom, any act that might be thought unusual or eccentric would be considered disrespectful to its *Ugigami*. Every member of the community, therefore, is held accountable for his conduct by the rest. The communal will reinforces that of the household. The moment the period of young childhood is passed, the boys or girls will be watched by all lest they become slack in the observance of filial piety. An act markedly contrary to that duty would be rebuked by all. Old enough to work or study, the growing lad is also old enough to endure the criticism of the community. As to marriage, the community would not for a moment tolerate the least insubordination to the family will. When married, he is not free to do exactly as he thinks best in regard to his wife and children. In all matters he is there to serve the community, and the higher he rises in the social scale, the more tightly are the fetters of custom and tradition bound upon him.

But supposing some individual, either wilfully or by mistake—it made no difference—offended the communal conscience, what happened? In a moment he would find himself isolated, most effectively ostracized. This was the most usual punishment. However, there was one punishment even heavier than that of ostracism, that of banishment. In feudal days—and they continued until 1867—it was a terrible penalty. Expelled from his native

place by the communal will, cast out from his home, his clan, and his occupation, the man faced utter misery. No stranger was allowed to settle in another district without official permission. No household could give him shelter save at the risk of grievous punishment. He might be a skilled craftsman, but even if there was a branch of his particular craft guild in the new locality its doors were shut, for no guild would receive a banished man. Neither was there religious help for him, for his own *Kami* had cast him forth and none would take him in.

Banishment meant hunger, solitude, and unspeakable privation. There then existed no idea of human brotherhood, no conception of any claim upon kindness except the claim of the family, of kinship. *The stranger was everywhere the enemy.* How far this conception has affected the Japanese mentality of today in regard to foreigners in general is problematical, but that it must tend to the encouragement of feelings of antagonism and dislike seems certain.

So powerful, so definite a teaching as this, "a stranger is an enemy," inculcated for centuries within the restricted circle of each one's communal group is not going to be easily eradicated. How much does this system, this cult of ancestor worship, this Shinto with all its implications explain! The Japanese committee-mindedness, their fear of being alone, their terror of making a mistake, their feeling of security only when acting as one of a group, all of these curious characteristics fall into line. It is now possible to understand the reason for their education being designed to turn out citizens "according to pattern," the deliberate discouragement of the individuality, even extending to the crushing of unusual talent, lest the possessor should be tempted to think himself different from the rest. Above all it explains those terrible outbursts of cruelty, of sadistic madness; for a racial background such as the Japanese possess postulates an unusually strong and fierce emotional nature which is daily and hourly subjected to constant supervision from without, not from within. When unusual circumstances arise, be they due to war or to sudden calamity, the normal inhibitions are lessened or removed, and the

resultant explosion is bound to be in proportion to the strength of the suppression and the power of the emotional forces released.

So much is written and spoken about the position held by the Japanese emperor in the life and thoughts of the people, that there is a real danger of getting the whole picture of Japanese psychology out of perspective. Actually the Imperial Cult, though it can be called the national religion, is in its effect upon the lives of the people, a comparatively modern manifestation and has influenced them far less than either the domestic or communal cults. In the very early days Japanese society was simply an aggregation of clan families which were called *Ugi*. To the individual generally recognized as "king" was traditionally attached the right of representing the different *Ugi* before the common ancestor, and he was therefore held to have a unique relationship with the gods.

To put this beyond doubt, in the early eighth century, the ruler of the time ordered that the first official compilation of the past, the *Kojiki*, should be compiled. One reason for the compilation was undoubtedly to forestall any rival claimant by proclaiming that he, and he alone, was in direct line from the divine ancestress, the Sun Goddess. It further crystallized and made definite the idea of the Emperor's divinity. Besides the office of pontiff representing all the *Ugi*, two other functions resided by tradition in the "king"—that of being commander-in-chief of all forces in the field should occasion for united action arise, and also of deciding when a war involving such forces was to be declared and when peace was to be made. It is easy to understand how, as the authority of the Emperor came to be recognized all over the country, the Imperial ancestress, the Sun Goddess, came to be established in the minds of the people as the protectress and supreme object of worship for the entire nation. But compared to the reality of the domestic and communal *Kami*, the conception was shadowy and at times even evanescent.

The basic conception of Shinto, as evidenced in the domestic and communal cults, is the virtue of loyalty with its accompanying duties of absolute obedience and whole-hearted service. The nation was ruled through its groups by

this notion of duty, yet the circle of that duty did not at the most extend beyond the clan group to which he belonged. The circumference of his circle was defined by the communal cult, enclosing within itself numberless small circles representing the domestic worship of each household. Thus this religion of loyalty, right up to the Restoration of 1868, was limited by the very constitution of Japanese society. Under such conditions, that larger loyalty which is patriotism in the modern sense, that consciousness of love of king and country could not fully evolve. The shrine of Ise dedicated to the Sun Goddess, *Amaterasu-o-mi-Kami*, indeed stood for the religion of the nation. But each man had been taught for centuries that his first duty was to his lord, and that one cannot efficiently serve two masters. Thus the feudal government and relationship effectively suppressed any tendency to a wider horizon. The idea of any duty to the nation outside of that to the chief had no chance to define itself in the mind of the vassal.

Besides the compilation of the first records, the eighth century also saw a marked intensification of Chinese influence which had made its first strong impression a hundred years before. The avidity with which the ruling classes seized upon and copied everything Chinese is most reminiscent of the similar enthusiasm for all things European in the latter part of the nineteenth century. But there was a difference. So struck were the early Japanese by the comparatively splendid culture of the continent, that Chinese manners and customs, methods of administration, and ceremonial observances were taken over en bloc, regardless of the totally different background and circumstances. To attempt to pour so rich and exquisite a wine into such crude and ill-suited bottles, caused those bottles to break over and over again, particularly in matters of government and administration. Thus by methods of trial and error, the Japanese learned the art of adaptation rather than slavish imitation—an art at which they are now past masters. It was, however, the result of Chinese influence in the court that led directly to the eventual seclusion of the Emperor.

The fascination exerted on the Japanese by the stately and complicated ceremony of the Chi-

nese court was tremendous. Constantly added to and modified by succeeding Emperors, it became so burdensome that it was literally impossible to find time for duties both administrative and religious. Whereas the ruler could appoint a deputy for the former, he and only he could fulfill the latter. Thus we find, right through Japanese history, the dual role in government—the Emperor with all the prestige and reverence attached to the office, and a deputy or Shogun holding the real authority.

The rulers of Japan have always been realists, and never was this quality better shown than when the fast closed doors of that country were forced open by the arrival of Commodore Perry. After over two centuries of seclusion Japan was suddenly to be exposed to the impact of the rest of the world, especially to that civilization referred to as the West. At the same time the centralized military government of the Shogunate was tottering, its authority becoming less and less recognized, its administration more hated and despised. There was danger that civil war would again rend the land and make it an easy prey to western enterprise. This supreme danger required that the social units should be fused into one coherent mass, capable of uniform action. In other words, the clan and tribal groups must be dissolved and all authority centered in the one representative of the national religion. The feudal duty of loyalty and obedience to the territorial lord must be replaced by the duty of loyalty and obedience to the divine Emperor. With the restoration of the Emperor Meiji the new conception gradually permeated the ranks of the people. Gradually the old differentiated loyalties became united. The former limited sense of duty expanded into the new national sentiment of trust in, and obedience to, the Emperor and the country. The modern conception of patriotism came into being. But not, be it noted, at the expense of the domestic and communal cults. The circumference formed by the latter had been dissolved; such cults now became lesser circles, still containing the small circles of the domestic cult, but themselves contained within the vast circumference of the national religion.

Such is the background, such the chief influ-

ence that has gone to form the Japanese of today. This great religion of loyalty is the fundamental source, the parent soil within the deep layers of which are embedded the roots from which the Japanese character has sprung—the soil which has nourished and strengthened its growth and produced the plant whose nature we are beginning to know. However, there are other influences which have pruned that plant and watered it, which have shaped it and trained it. Almost the whole of Japan's authentic history has been the story of the rise and fall of the military power.

How the dual form of government originally arose in Japan has already been suggested. When the system first arose, the Emperor appointed the head of the Fujiwara clan to be his deputy or regent. This clan represented a majority of the ancient nobility claiming divine descent. The families professing such an ancestry numbered one hundred fifty-five, and as a class were known as the *Kuge*. For five centuries it was always a member of the Fujiwara clan which held the office of regent. Naturally every opportunity was taken by the family to increase the authority of their position. The political authority of the Emperor ceased to exist, but the religious dignity of the throne increased. The more the Emperor was withdrawn from public view, the more did his seclusion and inaccessibility serve to deepen the awe of the divine legend. The living deity was made invisible to the multitude. It is important to stress this phase of Japanese history because it directly prepared the way for the rise of the military power. The people became so accustomed to the real authority being wielded by an official other than the Emperor that they simply could not imagine anything else.

The history of all Japanese regencies, commencing with the Fujiwara, has always been the same. The mystic authority of the throne was, by its very nature, inviolable and permanent. Things divine cannot be affected by things temporal. But political authority, however powerful at its peak, depends upon the interplay of human ambitions and material circumstances. Like all those who eventually succeeded them, the Fujiwara became victims of that luxury which they had introduced and main-

tained. Degenerating into a mere court nobility, they left the conduct of affairs to the *Buke*, or the military class, which had come into existence during the eighth century when society had been organized on the Chinese system.

Once formed, this class extended its power rapidly. Clans distinguished by a specifically military character came into existence. As they increased in strength and influence so rivalries arose, and clashes became more frequent. Eventually two such classes became preeminent, the Taira and the Minamoto. For a time their rivalry was kept in check by the Fujiwara, but as the authority of the latter became weaker, so the ambitions of the two rivals became more uncontrollable. At last, about the middle of the eleventh century, it broke out into open civil war, the most bitter in Japanese history. Both the Taira and Minamoto families were *Kuge*, and in 1185 at the famous sea battle of Dan-no-ura the Taira were utterly exterminated. This date, 1185, is one of the most important in Japanese history for it saw the commencement of that military rule which was to endure to 1868, the rule of the Shogun or generalissimo. To his administration established at Kamakura in north central Japan, the Shogun gave the name of *Bakufu*, which means "Military Headquarters," thus clearly establishing its character.

The story of Japanese feudalism, stated briefly, is the story of clan wars continued at irregular intervals for nearly five centuries. The struggle for power continued until the country was in danger of complete disintegration. At no moment during those five hundred years was there not some part of the land which had become the center of war and bloodshed, looting, starvation, and destruction. This terrible state of affairs was to continue until 1573 when the first of the great trio, the founders of modern Japan, seized power. These were Oda Nobunaga, Hideyoshi Toyotomi, and Tokugawa Ieyasu, each of whom realized that the only way of saving the country was a centralized rule so strong that no great clan would dare to raise its head. Oda Nobunaga began the task by destroying the Buddhist power, Hideyoshi Toyotomi weakened the clans, and it was left to the administrative genius of Tok-

ugawa Ieyasu to organize and give the nation a central government so strong, so firmly established, and eventually so feared that no clan lord dared even to start intrigues, much less attempt open rebellion. The Tokugawa Shogunate, which lasted until 1867, gave the country fifteen military sovereigns under whom Japan enjoyed a regime of order and stability for two hundred fifty years.

The Tokugawa Shogunate came to an end as a direct result of Western civilization in the person of Commodore Perry, U.S.N., compelling Japan to open her fast-closed doors to world commerce. For over two centuries the country had been barred to all. During those most crucial centuries when the rest of the world was striding ahead as never before, the years of the mechanization of industry, the period which saw the birth of organized scientific research applied to every branch of human endeavor and enterprise, Japan alone remained static. But once her doors were forced open her leaders realized that never again could they be closed. The old Japan was gone forever. The speed with which Japan adapted herself to modern conditions has always excited the wonder of the world. But the organization of her society and its habit of thought rendered the change of externals a comparatively simple matter, thereby giving the world a superficial impression of a Western civilization. And the West liked it; they swallowed the flattery of imitation in gulps, entirely overlooking the conservative mentality behind, fixed in habits of thought induced by thousands of years of despotic government.

When, centuries earlier, society in general had been organized according to the Chinese system, it was divided into four castes or classes. Above these four stood the *Kuge*, or ancient nobility, descendants of Emperors and of gods. Below them was the *Eta* or outcasts, descendants of slaves. They were and are a pariah people, following certain occupations in the monopoly of which they were legally confirmed. From their ranks came the torturers, executioners, and grave diggers. Most of them followed, as they do now, the business of tanners, and they alone have the right to slaughter animals. The four classes fell into two main groups: the military caste (*Buke*), and the

rest known collectively as the *Heimin*. In the military caste the only difference between lords and warriors was that of rank based upon income and title. All were *Samurai*, from the most powerful *Daimyo*, or feudal lord, to his humblest retainer. The other three castes, classed together as the *Heimin*, or common people, were in order of seniority the *Hyakushu* (farmers), the *Shokumin* (artisans), and the *Akindo* (merchants). The gulf between the *Samurai* and the *Heimin* was immense, for all *Heimin* were subject to the *Samurai* and could even be killed for showing disrespect. However, all were governed by a minutiae of sumptuary legislation which the peculiar constitution of society made it possible to enforce. Each community was organized into groups, and as each group was responsible for the conduct of each and all of its members, so each member was responsible for the rest. A man's life was not only regulated in such tiny things as the cost of his wife's hairpins and the price of his child's doll, but detailed regulations were prescribed for speech, demeanor, and etiquette as well. Common folk were often cruelly whipped for petty offenses, and for more serious offenses death by torture, crucifixion, and boiling were usual penalties. Of course the result of such a system was to suppress all mental and moral differentiation, to numb personality, stifle originality, and to establish one uniform and unchanging type of character. It was not to be expected that such a thing as freedom of speech could be tolerated. It did not exist. When the Japanese brought the charge of "insincerity" against those who refused to accept its dictation, was it not an echo of the old reaction to one who acted in an "unexpected manner?" What a light that not so distant past throws on the campaign against "dangerous thoughts," against those who dared harbor or express the mildest criticism of the actions of authority! From the commencement of the Japanese nation as an historical unit, it has been subjected to an unexampled tyranny of restrictions applied in one form or another and facilitated by the development of the group instinct, itself the result of its form of ancestor worship—Shinto.

One of the chief distinctions between a primitive and an advanced society lies in the emo-

tional stability of the individuals composing it. Impacts from without, contacts with "foreign" groups, these are the conditions under which emotional control and self-discipline are cultivated owing to the necessity of peaceful development and increase in material welfare. The process is gradual for, if self-control is to be built into the national character as a permanent possession, the lesson can only be learned slowly and by degrees. But in the case of the Japanese, this lesson has never been in the curriculum. For emotional stability results from self-control, the mandate for which must come from within, from the free choice of the individual. But to the Japanese the opportunity of making such a free choice has ever been denied. External restrictions alone, and of the most intense kind, have been imposed upon them from the beginning, and increased with the passage of the centuries. Such restrictions, arising in the first place through the family and communal cults of Shinto, were intensified by Buddhism, and extended by the Shogunate. In every restrictive measure the group was the unit in view whether that group was the family, the clan, the class, the profession, or the guild. As for the conduct of the individual, this was assured by the jealous vigilance of the other group members. This cultivation of the group mentality has also had another far-reaching effect in the opportunity it has given, to leaders especially, of shelving responsibility. Even in the Japan of today it is a practical impossibility to put the onus of any decision upon the shoulders of any one person.

It is sometimes thought that the group ideology which runs through Japanese society, together with their marked capacity for organization, renders the Japanese people peculiarly open to the development of democratic ideas. Actually nothing could be farther from the truth. Superficially the difference between our idea of local self-government and the Japanese communal organization seems slight. Actually it is enormous and fundamental. Summed up it is the difference between the most despotic form of communism based on religious sanctions, and a highly evolved form of industrial union with unlimited rights of competition.

In regard to the people of Japan, what is the future likely to bring forth? There can

be no doubt that up to 1936 marked changes were observable in the people's mentality, particularly among the intelligentsia. It was true that in official administration the "group and clan psychology" still functioned and was still encouraged. This was especially so in education and in government offices. The influence of the family system was still extremely great, thus vitiating the only atmosphere in which free competition could exist. Yet, it was an undoubted fact that the gospel of individualism was making progress. Furthermore, the reaction against military aggression and control which defeat brought, gave individualism a tremendous stimulus. That this is a great fundamental change may be judged by the fact that the one charge above all that the militarists brought against the West was the charge of imbuing the Japanese people with the idea of individualism. This was preached as the supreme heresy. Yet, insofar as the Japanese people are concerned, there is a very real danger in individualism—that of anarchy. The problem would seem to be how to devise a method of government, or rather a system of

administration, which, while retaining all that is of value in the cult of ancestor worship, will widen the mental vision of the individual as an individual, and at the same time enable him to grasp the distinction between freedom and license.

The national disorganization following on Japan's defeat has produced a period in which all social forces are in a state of flux; in which all anchors have gone adrift. It is a period in which it will be realized that the very foundation of the Japanese social order is wholly false. It is a period of infinite danger, but also of infinite opportunity. It involves the complete and final disruption of the whole ancient order, the commencement of ways of thought and life utterly novel and completely strange to the vast majority. In short, it is in Japan herself that the New Order is to be born. Its shape and character will depend largely upon the wisdom of the Allied governments and upon the success of Japan's leaders in persuading her people to "make all things new."

Public Education and Organized Labor

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After conducting a five-months' investigation of education in Pennsylvania, The Working-Men's Committee of Philadelphia declared that despotism rests upon a monopoly of talent. This committee further declared that if free government is to be maintained among the American people, the means of equal knowledge should, by legal provision, be rendered the common property of all classes.¹ According to Cubberley, the report by this group of Philadelphia workers was typical of similar documents which appeared during the period from 1828 to 1840.²

It was during the Jacksonian era, the time of the emergence of labor as a force in Ameri-

can life, that organized workers, through their leaders, were speaking out in behalf of a system of public education which would free the sons and daughters of toilers from the shackles of ignorance.³ Mulhern has called the labor movement one of the principal factors which operated in establishing the public schools.⁴ Freeman Butts has corroborated Mulhern's statement while stressing that the important role of labor in this early struggle for public education has frequently been ignored by writers in the field of the historical foundations of American education.⁵

³ C. A. and M. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization* (1930 edition), I, 810.

⁴ James Mulhern, *A History of Education* (1946), p. 478.

⁵ Freeman Butts, *A Cultural History of Education* (1947), p. 482.

¹ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Readings in the History of Education*, p. 560. (Reference to *The Working-Man's Advocate* of March 6, 1830).

² *Ibid.*, p. 558.

It is plain that educators owe a debt of gratitude as do, indeed, all Americans, to those virtually unknown workers who resented witnessing their children growing into maturity without the knowledge that they correctly understood to constitute power. The thirst for knowledge motivated these workers into passing resolutions and placing pressure upon state legislatures toward the end that there would be free schools for all the people.

In more recent years, it is from the ranks of labor that there has stemmed a powerful drive in behalf of adequate support for our state school systems. Not long ago, the Workers' Education Bureau prepared a remarkable document which clearly indicated that labor has had great influence in mobilizing the public in support of sufficient financial appropriations for public education.⁶ A perusal of this document, *Labor and Education*, shows on the basis of the record that the labor movement has consistently befriended public education, and that this friendship has had practical results beyond that of support for financial measures.

In working for teacher tenure laws, for objectivity in the writing of textbooks, for vocational and adult education, the stand of the American Federation of Labor on innumerable occasions has been constructive and forward-looking. In no sense is the foregoing statement meant to disparage the significant help which has been lent by the Congress of Industrial Organizations to various legislative drives in support of the schools. The simple fact is that because of its much longer history, the record of the American Federation of Labor on this score is more readily available.

The forces of labor and those of the schools have, in recent years, come closer together in the realm of adult or workers' education. Particularly during the 1930's, when a great depression had gripped the land and working class groups were organizing in increasing numbers, many leaders from the ranks came to the realization that the union movement would, at best, lay its foundations upon sand if it failed to provide an educational program to keep pace with its quantitative development. Of course, some unions were far more effective in setting up these programs than were others.

⁶ Published by the American Federation of Labor (1939).

And today, it may be said that the apathy of thousands of union members toward the organizations which represent them can be attributed to the lack of concern which characterizes many union leaders for the importance of educational work.

In 1937, *The New Republic* claimed that the affiliated unions of what was then known as the Committee for Industrial Organizations, was "more aware of the pressing need for workers' education than is the A. F. of L."⁷ However, this statement was made during the period before such an organization as the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union, which has been notably successful in carrying out a plan of education for its members, had pulled out of the C. I. O. As an example of the possibilities along this line, Mark Starr, a leader in the workers' education movement, wrote that the ILGWU's education department had 20,000 students enrolled in over 500 groups and classes throughout the country.⁸

An unfortunate aspect of workers' education in the United States has been that the schools and colleges have failed to grasp the real opportunities that have existed in this area. This situation has largely resulted from the unrealistic conception of so many educators that it has been "unprofessional" for teachers to make arrangements of any kind with organizations of workers outside the white-collar groups. Since the colleges and other institutions have failed to fully grasp the opportunity, the unions have, themselves, accomplished for their members what has been permitted them by their own foresight and their facilities.

It is encouraging to note that more and more, colleges and universities are making a conscious effort to bridge the gap which has separated union members and union leaders from the campus academicians. Although not alone in this field, the University of Wisconsin has pioneered in setting a pattern which might well be emulated by other schools. Writing a few years ago, a union member told what a six weeks' session at the Summer School for Workers at the University of Wisconsin did for her. She had been, for 12 years, a hosiery

⁷ "Educating the Workers," *The New Republic* (December 22, 1937), p. 85.

⁸ Mark Starr, "Workers' Education—C.I.O. Model," *The Social Frontier* (January, 1938), p. 111.

worker, and was sent by her union to the session of 1937. She said:

The first day at school was a revelation. It was unlike anything in my past experience at grade school and one and a half years in high school. The instructors encouraged discussion . . . We did not memorize theories but analyzed the development of the labor movement . . . my mind grasped the workers' struggle for existence—alone, as individuals, they could not bargain for their right to exist. As a group they had voice and power. The dignity of all labor that helped to build our nation and the life of democracy slowly unfolded . . . I came back an enthusiastic member of the union, was asked to serve on the Educational Committee . . .⁹

The American Federation of Teachers, an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor, has likewise taken advantage of the facilities offered at the University of Wisconsin. In 1946, it ran a "vacation workshop" to which its members were invited to participate in course work which gave special consideration to the trade union movement as it is related to education.¹⁰

The indications are that organized labor represents a force of ever-growing strength in American life.¹¹ To be sure, labor has had its ups and downs. These have depended to a considerable extent upon the degree of support or opposition which labor has engendered within the halls of Congress. The fact remains, historically speaking, that labor represents a power in the life of our nation which cannot and should not be ignored by any educator who is seriously concerned with enlightening his students.

The power of labor is an element which cannot be disposed of with a shrug of the shoulders. In many school systems, for example, administrators are having to bargain with custodians or their representatives from the Building Service Employees' Union, an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor. And there

⁹ Stella Hartwig, "I Went To School In Summer," *Progressive Education* (April, 1944), 183.

¹⁰ "A. F. T. Vacation Workshop," *The American Teacher* (May, 1946), 8-9.

¹¹ The latest figures from the *World Almanac* put the membership of the A.F.L. and C.I.O. at more than six million in each instance.

are two teachers' organizations which are affiliated with labor on a national scale . . . the American Federation of Teachers which has been previously alluded to, and the Teachers Union of the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

Furthermore, in the school year, 1946-1947, teachers in various parts of the country participated in strike action. Most of these teachers were not directly affiliated with any labor group, but the newspaper pictures of teachers carrying signs on the picket line was something revolutionary in American life. These teachers, for the first time acting on what might be characterized as a "mass scale," looked and acted for all the world like their non-white-collar brethren, who had "hit the bricks" many times before.¹²

These teachers' strikes resulted, in some states, in the passage of legislation which would subject to stringent penalties any government workers, teachers included, who participated in strike action. This type of legislation, plus a strong reaction against teachers' strikes from those who are in a position to influence public opinion, led many of our citizens to question the value of teachers' walkouts. The fact remains that the direct action approach probably resulted in important financial gains for teachers the country over, and brought many teachers into a closer sympathy with organized working people, and the problems which confront them.

In view of the increasing importance of labor in our national life, and the ever-growing relationship of public education to organized labor, it should be plain to responsible educators that it is time, past time, that the various facets of the labor movement in this country, both on a historical and a contemporary basis, be given greater consideration in the curricula of our schools and colleges. Not only must this consideration for an important phase of the American social scene be increased, but teachers must ever be on the alert in giving the assurance that there shall be a measure of objectivity in the way in which this subject is treated in the classroom.

¹² Four articles published in *The Phi Delta Kappan* (April, 1947), 350-357, present an inclusive analysis of teachers' strikes.

The evidence is convincing that in the past, there has been not only inadequate attention devoted to labor and labor history, but the way in which the material has been handled has been anything but objective. There is no need to cite specific illustrations lest, for example, in examining some of the textbooks materials, we cause to grow red the faces of some of the best known writers of secondary history textbooks in the country. But if any readers of this article are interested, I urge them, as a case in point, to discover how the Pullman strike of 1894 is treated in various texts, and then to compare this treatment to labor's own account of what happened, or to Eugene Debs' description of this strike which he led.

Fortunately, the textbook situation in the handling of labor topics, is improving to some extent. In the secondary field, Mark Starr and Harold U. Faulkner have authored a highly useful teaching vehicle in their *Labor in America*. Another volume altogether suitable for secondary use, is *The American Story of Industrial and Labor Relations* published by the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions, in 1943. Herbert Harris' *American Labor*, written in a semi-popular idiom, is highly readable, done in the spirit of thoroughly sound scholarship,

and is useful in the college area as well as at the upper secondary level. Other works might be mentioned, particularly in the college field.

In conclusion, let it be said that any teacher who has a real understanding of current problems, and approaches these in the spirit of inquiry rather than of prejudice, is quite competent to do a creditable job of teaching labor history and labor problems. Such a teacher will procure, at least, limited materials and will be able to critically evaluate these materials in using them with the students.

To continue to ignore labor history and labor problems is to do an injustice to our students. And let us keep in mind that objectivity is the foundation of sound teaching in the social studies area. Let us not be carried away by prejudice. If we send our students into the world, as so many teachers have done in the past, alienated from organized labor, we will have corrupted their vision and have made them the fit subjects for the machinations of those who, certainly, have never been noted for their eager support of public education. It is time for teachers, along with other citizens who have at heart the welfare of our country, to quit stabbing one of the most constructive friends of the public schools which exists in our land.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Graham Junior-Senior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

Educators on the alert for good films for use in social studies classes will be interested in the Bureau for Intercultural Education's new list, *Films in Intercultural Education*. Write to Department M, 1697 Broadway, New York City 19, N. Y.

Audio-Visual Aids Catalog, listing 2000 motion pictures, 1800 film strips, 30,000 lantern slides and 800 records and transcriptions—much material of value to social studies classes—is available without charge. Write to Audio-Visual Aids Center, Department of Libraries, New Jersey Board of Education, Newark, New Jersey.

The National Film Board of Canada, Ottawa, Canada, will gladly send its free (16 mm. films) catalog to those interested. There are excellent recommendations regarding films for use in social studies classes.

The United Nations Department of Public Information, Films and Visual Information Division, Lake Success, Long Island, New York, has a free catalog available. Send for a copy of *United Nations in Films*. It is a list of 16 and 35 mm. films, distributed in the United States by the various government information offices, embassies, legations and commercial distributors.

CHARTS, MAPS, POSTERS, OTHER AIDS

Nystrom Pamphlet (C46) is now available for distribution. It contains a listing of globes, world maps, geography maps, literature maps, outline maps, democracy at work charts, history maps, atmosphere and weather charts and display pictures. The price for each article is quoted. This pamphlet is available free of charge from A. J. Nystrom and Company, 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago 18, Illinois.

Atlas of World Affairs, published by Thomas Y. Crowell Company, is an excellent aid for geography, current affairs, history and international relations. It consists of a series of 137 large maps, 28 in two colors, and more than 250 smaller maps, charts and pictographs. It covers such items as physical setting, land-forms, climates, resources, trade, military and industrial assets. Write to T. Y. Crowell Company, 432 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, New York, for free booklet.

A Historical Atlas for use by individual students is published by C. S. Hammond Company. It provides reference material for students of general survey courses, introductory and modern civilization courses. There are 51 fully colored plates $12\frac{1}{4} \times 9\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Write to C. S. Hammond Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York City 16, N. Y., for further information.

Map of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics came recently. This fine 64×44 inch map depicts the physical outlines of the country and reveals the principal political divisions. It comes in mountings which can meet the individual needs of the teacher. For information write to Denoyer-Geppert Company, 5235-5239 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago 40, Illinois.

Colored History Maps, size $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ inches, for use in students' notebooks and syllabi, are available from Denoyer-Geppert Company. Colored geography maps, notebook size, can also be obtained. A catalog on maps and globes is also available for the asking.

The Bacon Charts, entitled "Our Democracy," is an excellent visual aid for teaching the American Way. It is suitable for all ages and grade levels. It is adjustable to all social studies courses. The series consists of 20 wall charts, 44×32 inches, in two colors. A teachers' manual comes with the set. Write to Denoyer-Geppert Company for prices, etc.

Comparative Wall Atlas. This "giant" atlas of 16 large maps is bound in heavy-duty board covers, metal-reinforced for hanging on the walls. The maps depict each continent as man found it and show how he developed it. This is accomplished by separate physical and political maps arranged side by side for comparative study. Each double spread measures 43×29 inches. The pages are turned as in a book. A revision service corrects the maps after settlement of new international boundary lines. For further information write to C. S. Hammond Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York City.

SLIDES AND FILM STRIPS

"United Nations Charter." This timely 35 mm. film strip unit was produced in consultation with United Nations Information Office. It explains the structure of U.N. and the functions of its six main bodies. Included with the film strip are three official booklets of background material. Write to Current History Films, 77 Fifth Avenue, New York City, for details.

"Social Study Units." Each unit consists of ten or more $2" \times 2"$ colored slides organized according to our curriculum units, with an instructional guide. For all listed below, write to Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 E. Ohio Street, Chicago, Illinois.

1. "New England" (Early Settlers)—Vivid illustrations show the methods and equipment by which the Pilgrims obtained food, shelter and clothing; domestic manufacturing, early factories and modes of transportation are also included.
2. "Middle Atlantic States" (Colonial Development)—The cultural advancements in this era: government, churches, schools and homes are brilliantly recorded. Some coverage of Revolutionary sites is made.
3. "Shrines and Symbols of American Democracy"—Here are included memorials beloved by Americans as symbols of freedom. The Plymouth Rock Memorial, the Statue of Liberty, and noted monuments in Washington, D. C. are among them.
4. "Spanish Missions of the Old Southwest"—These famous missions founded by Spanish priests from Mexico in southwestern U. S. include Santa Barbara and San Fer-

- nando in California, San Xavier in Arizona, and San Jose in Texas.
5. "The American Indian"—Impressive pictures of Indians of the Southwest present the colorful Pueblo and Navajo tribes, their homes, dress, crafts and arts.
 6. "Indians of the Forest"—The clothing, homes, crafts and customs of the Indians who occupied the territory from the Atlantic coast west to the Mississippi: the Mohawks, Cherokees, Sac and Fox tribes.
 7. "Indians of the Plains"—Scenes of present-day Blackfeet and Sioux Indians on reservations, both in everyday dress and in full regalia. Manual emphasizes the history and characteristics of these tribes.

"Your Stake in Collective Bargaining." Six recommendations on how to bring about better collective bargaining are highlighted in this new 35 mm. film strip released by the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 E. 38 Street, New York City. It stimulates discussions of such questions as ways in which unions and management fail to meet each other half way; the issue of employer-labor cooperation on new machinery and on labor-saving methods; and using collective bargaining not only to settle disputes but to increase the country's wealth and productive power.

MOVIE FILMS

"Tea from Nyasaland"—This one-reel, 16 mm. film is a pictorial story of how the tea plant is grown and cultivated, how the tea leaves are picked and prepared at the plantation, and how the tea is sampled, blended and packed for the consumer. It is recommended for elementary and high school social studies classes. Write to Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41 Street, New York 17, N. Y.

"New York Calling"—This 16 mm. film, with a running time of 22 minutes, is made available through the New York Central Railroad, 466 Lexington Avenue, New York City. It brings the New York visitor down the scenic Hudson River Valley to detrain at the wondrous Grand Central Terminal. From here a grand tour of the metropolis is made. "New

York Calling" is New York Central's contribution to the promotion of world-wide interest in the cultural, educational and entertainment facilities of New York City.

"Make Fruitful the Land"—This 16 mm. technicolor film gives a short history of the method and theory of agriculture which has developed in England over the centuries. Animated diagrams show the wastefulness of medieval farming and the great advantages of modern crop rotation. The film reflects recent methods used in one of the most highly mechanized farming systems in the world. Write to the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

"Out of the Ruins"—This 16 mm. film, running time 30 minutes, begins with a survey of the cultural and scientific contributions of the ancient Greeks to western civilization. It goes on to portray the ruin left by the recent war and the efforts of the UNRRA to relieve the suffering of the people. International Film Bureau, 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago, Illinois.

"Steel . . . Man's Servant"—This is a 16 mm. industrial film in technicolor, complete with sound and orchestration. It acquaints one more fully with the wonders of one of the world's greatest industries. It shows the tremendous activity and enormous investment in equipment which precedes the making of countless steel products from tacks to automobiles, bridges, towering buildings and streamlined trains. Write to United States Steel Corporation, New York City.

"The City"—This is a .16 mm. sound film, running time 30 minutes. It makes a strong appeal for city planning to take care of human needs. Write to Co-op Films, 167 West 12 Street, New York 30, N. Y.

RADIO

The National Broadcasting Company will celebrate the week of September 14-20 as United Nations Week, with the cooperation of the National Education Association. The NBC is expanding its plans for wide public service operations designed to further international understanding and support for the United Nations.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

A CRITICAL YEAR

This will be a critical year for teachers of the social studies, a testing time for their ability to interpret events and their belief in the future. During the first two years following the conclusion of the war, while the United Nations were in process of formation and the new idealism was still glittering, it was not too difficult to bring to young people the vision of a world of international cooperation and well-being. Obstacles that developed could be attributed to the newness of the machinery for world peace. Attention could be devoted to the long-range plans of the United Nations and its subsidiary organizations, and the many hopeful signs of their successful development.

This year it will not be so easy for the teacher to maintain that tone of optimism and that sense of faith in man's destiny that was apparent in the words of the Charter and its authors. There is a feeling of cynicism, or perhaps of fatalism, evident even among those of high school age. It is a pessimism directed not against the future of this country, but against the earlier hope that world peace and comity might be at last a thing of reality. It has been replaced by a conviction that the struggle between democracy and fascism was won only to be followed by another inevitable conflict between democracy and communism.

Developments of the past few months have convinced most Americans that Soviet Russia has no desire to compromise its ambitions or to accommodate itself to a world society involving frankness, unselfish cooperation, and self-determination for all groups of people. True democracy is based on a spirit of "live and let live"; but communism, as was true with fascism, is devoted to the principle that its doctrines and methods must be forced on everyone, willing or not. It is the "true religion" and the heathen must be extirpated.

With this difference in fundamental outlook becoming ever more apparent, it will be harder for the teacher to know how to present current

problems sincerely and realistically. To attempt to play down the gloomy evidences that world cooperation is still a distant dream will be to invite the cynicism of every pupil who reads the news. To admit, on the other hand, that there is no hope of avoiding another great war is unnecessarily pessimistic; while to evade discussion and study of the whole problem of international relations because it is discouraging is of course unworthy of any good social studies teacher.

The greatest hope for peace lies in the possibility that capitalism and democracy can, by more enlightened methods than were used before, prove their superiority as a means of bringing prosperity to the world and so destroy the claims of communism to be the ideal society. So probably the wise teacher will use current events, the good as well as the bad, to develop in her pupils an understanding of what we are trying to do and how we are trying to do it. Education cannot prevent war by ignoring it, but by convincing mankind that the democratic way, without war, can bring more security and good living to the world than any other method. In short, it will continue to be the first duty of the social studies teacher to preach free democracy and individual liberty.

We should have learned one lesson from our opponents by this time—that any nation which really believes in its own way of life must solidly ground its young people in that way through its public schools. This does not mean that we should falsify facts in order to make a better case; but it does mean that if democracy is to conquer communism without war (or with it) we must use our schools to indoctrinate a firm belief in democratic principles. We must not try to be unbiased teachers, presenting all aspects of economic and political differences, and letting our pupils draw what conclusions they will. We must truly teach with the purpose of making converts to a cause. The more confusing the world picture seems to become, the more convincingly must we preach.

This will indeed be a critical year for social studies teachers.

THE CONTROL OF EDUCATION

A very interesting and thought-provoking article by Frederick Rand Rogers appeared in *Educational Forum* for May. It was entitled, "Cutting Education's Gordian Knot," and the knot to which he refers is the aim and direction of American education. There are a great many intelligent persons, both within and outside the profession, who feel sincerely that the results of our educational system are rather meager for the effort expended, and that this is due in large part to an absence of agreement on direction and objectives of education. We do not have better teaching because we do not know exactly what we are trying to teach and hence can neither do it effectively nor evaluate what we do for lack of a standard of comparison.

It has been said that no two leaders in American education agree on anything. This is a serious state of things, even if exaggerated, for two reasons. In the first place, it is serious because under the decentralized system of education used in this country, it is not *necessary* for educators to agree on anything. Each state or each university or each local school system develops its own ideas and wanders off in whatever direction seems to it best. Obviously they cannot all be right, and there is no effective means of control by which the inefficient can be made to follow a better path. In the second place, educators have fostered the fetish of "academic freedom" to the point that they hotly resent the slightest attempt at direction or control of educational policy by any authority not composed of professional educators.

Mr. Rogers uses a sort of fantasy technique to describe what he thinks might be the solution of the problem. He envisions a state board of regents empowered by the legislature to make drastic changes in the whole educational program and hierarchy. This board of regents appoints as a Director of Education the most eminent man in the state, and with his help tries to deduce the human characteristics, skills and knowledge which people will need in order to cope with conditions as they will be 50 years hence. They translate these characteristics into objectives for teaching. They also set up standards of qualification for teachers

and require teachers and all other educators to keep up with these qualifications in order to remain in service. They prescribe careful and frequent testing of pupils under the board's direction in order to insure that the teaching standards are maintained. And they double educational salaries in order to get the highest quality of teaching possible.

Mr. Rogers concludes with an admonition by his imaginary Board of Regents: "When the professional employees of any social service *themselves* determine the aims and objectives of their organization, that instant marks the beginning of their organization's decline." In other words, he believes that the control of education should be returned to the people, that the determination of its direction and the evaluation of its efficiency should be in the hands of a body of leading citizens who are not professional educators. A great deal may be said for this thesis, even by schoolmen. It would make a fascinating subject for discussion at some of our professional meetings, but it is exceedingly doubtful if the initial impulse for the serious public consideration of such an idea will ever come from among our own ranks.

LOOKING AHEAD

If any system of coordinated aims for education, such as Mr. Rogers has suggested, is ever adopted it will be necessary first to try to see into the future. It is unquestionably true that one of the major faults of education is that we teach for the present only. We merely try to keep up with the times; we do not anticipate them. Perhaps that would be impossible, or at least unpopular. Yet it is a salutary thing occasionally to look ahead, to try to predict what kind of country and what kind of schools we may have a generation hence as logical outgrowths of present and known factors. To do this is a useful antidote to too much conservatism and traditionalism. It makes changes seem less shocking when they do come.

John W. Studebaker, writing in *School Life* for April, drew a picture of what he believes the high school of the future will be like. As he sees it, there will be a very close approach to 100 per cent enrollment, due to the greater attractiveness of the offerings of tomorrow's high school, and to the greater likelihood of technological unemployment for the young.

There will be greater emphasis than now on the utilitarian aspects of general education, and much more attention paid to the pupil who is neither going to college nor into a skilled trade. There will be increased emphasis on health and physical education, and camping will be integrated into school programs.

To provide this kind of education Mr. Studebaker foresees buildings equipped with several large classrooms where a hundred or more pupils may be taught by experienced "master" teachers aided by the best in visual and auditory materials, maps and other graphic equipment. Other smaller rooms will be used for the large groups to break up into smaller units for study, laboratory work, discussion, or individual help, guided by "junior" (inexperienced) teachers and "apprentice" (practice) teachers. The picture as he draws it is somewhat similar to the organization of a large and splendidly equipped college of today. There will be a full program of expert guidance and counselling, and closer links between home and school. There will be more clerical assistance, so that teachers are relieved of much of this type of drudgery. Professional standards will be higher—and so will salaries. He believes that the American people will come to realize that the doubled or tripled cost of a program like this will be money well spent for value received.

USING FILMS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

It is no longer necessary to waste time explaining to good teachers the value and importance of visual aids. These things are accepted today as a matter of course; to this extent, at least, modern education has made a marked improvement over the past. But as with any comparatively new technique, there is a great deal yet to be learned about its use. Experimentation, research, and the exchange of experiences are very necessary. One of the greatest obstacles at present to the effective use of visual aids is the feeling of many teachers that they do not know what to use or how to use them.

The social studies constitute one of the subject fields in which visual aids can be most useful and effective. There is an almost unlimited variety of possibilities for their application to geography, government, civics, current problems, sociology, and history. Unfortunately

there are also many difficulties. In addition to the general problems of cost, equipment and film availability, there are others which apply more directly to the social studies than to most other fields. One of these is timeliness; social studies deal to a great degree with factors that are constantly changing. Films that deal with human activities must be reasonably up-to-date; one that pictures labor problems as they existed and were dealt with in 1940, for instance, will hardly be of much value by 1949. Realism is another factor. Since social studies do deal with human activities, their presentation in pictures must be sufficiently realistic to be convincing. This is particularly difficult in connection with historical subjects; the dramatization of the past should be attempted only with the highest professional competence and attention to detail. This is a highly expensive procedure, as Hollywood knows. There are too many dramatized films intended for schools which are ineffective because the pupils recognize their lack of realism and are amused rather than instructed.

In view of all these problems, it is especially important that social studies teachers profit by the experiences of each other in their use of visual aids. It is desirable that teachers put their successes and their complaints into print for the guidance of other teachers and of those who manufacture and distribute visual aids. Generally speaking, textbook publishers and authors tend to provide the kinds of material which teachers want and avoid those they do not like; experience has taught them that this pays. The same form of economic pressure may soon make itself felt in the visual aids field.

Three interesting and worthwhile articles on the use of films appeared in recent issues of *High Points*, the monthly magazine produced by the high school teachers of New York City. In the June issue Benjamin Weinrib discussed the value of 16 mm. sound films in the social studies program. He listed five points of importance to be considered in choosing a film for class showing. It should be pertinent to the unit under current discussion in class; it should be free from objectionable advertising or propaganda; it should be suitable to the intelligence level, age, and interests of the pupils who are to see it; it should be accurate and timely; and it should be of a convenient length for class

use, usually about twenty minutes running time. Mr. Weinrib describes the procedures which are used in showing social studies films in the large school where he is employed. Some of these are of course not practicable in smaller schools, but such matters as having a student organization trained to handle all equipment, or a mimeographed preview sheet for class discussion, or a teacher evaluation report on the film as a guide for future programming, are points that can be used in any school.

In the same issue of *High Points* Milton Lowens has an excellent discussion of a very important topic—the use of sponsored films. Just as with radio programs, most of the good educational films are sponsored—that is, the extra cost of production is paid for by someone who expects to get his money back through the advertising provided by the film. Many large industries spend hundreds of thousands of dollars preparing excellent films which are loaned practically free of charge to schools, civic clubs and other groups. They do it because they believe in the basic psychological principle of the advertising business: that people will buy the product or accept the idea with which they are most familiar. Mr. Lowens feels that there is no logical reason why schools should avoid sponsored films which have educational value and where the advertising matter is not blatant. The same canons of good taste apply here as in radio, and an educational film produced by a particular railroad or oil company need not be any more objectionable for school use than a good radio program sponsored in the same way. Mr. Lowens explained a method for evaluating the suitability of sponsored films for school use, and discussed such problems as length and teaching techniques to use with them.

Murray Eisenstadt of Midwood High School also contributed a resumé in *High Points* for

May of the experience of that high school's social studies department with 16 mm. films. He mentioned that the cost of a semester's film program is covered by giving a movie show open to the whole student body at a small admission fee. About a dozen outstanding films, such as *The River*, *The City*, *Servant of the People*, *Prelude to War*, and *The Pale Horseman*, were found to be of particular value in the social studies as means of motivating interest in a subject or giving reality to some concept difficult for children to grasp through reading alone.

A worthwhile article on the general problem of film use in schools appeared in *School Life* for July, written by Floyde E. Brooker. He discussed the nature of learning from films, some of the difficulties of using them, and the advantages that can come from their wise utilization. He compared the present situation in film use to that of the automobile forty years ago. Like motor cars then, school films today are clumsy, expensive and sometimes hard to justify on the basis of results obtained. "Films are being used in schools which were not built for them, the present production and use of films perpetuate many questionable traditions, and we do not yet know enough about how to use a film most effectively in the classroom." But these difficulties are no more reason to condemn the film than comparable difficulties would have justified abandoning or neglecting the automobile forty years ago. The effectiveness of their use will increase as we learn how to make them, distribute them, and utilize them. It will depend largely on the teacher to obtain this improvement through his experimentation, selection of good films, and insistence on help in making them available. It will not make his task of instruction any easier, but it will make it more effective.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

American Scriptures. By Carl Van Doren and Carl Carmer. New York: Boni and Gaer, 1946. Pp. xiv, 302. \$3.75.

During the intermissions of the Sunday concerts of the New York Philharmonic Symphony Society, in 1943 and 1944, there were broadcast a series of short radio dramas based on incidents in American history. "In that troubled time they were intended to lift the spirits of Americans by recalling to them heroic things done and wise things said in the American past, by men and women who had once lived through other great national emergencies with the faith and fortitude which were now again demanded of the people of this nation." Mr. Van Doren and Mr. Carmer have selected thirty-three of these radio dramas, and have grouped them under nine headings: Statesmen, Holidays, Heroes, Family Letters, Opening of the Continent, Monuments, Principles, The West, and Songs. The volume is illustrated with forty-eight pictures from famous collections of Americana, arranged to present "a pictorial record of the highlights of life in America from early days to recent times."

This volume cannot—is probably not meant to—replace the older collections of readings and sources in American history. It should be used, rather, to supplement them. Here are a group of highly dramatic, essentially truthful dramatizations of colorful and important incidents in our national growth. They are the product of a new medium, radio—one of which too few teachers are making effective use in their classrooms. These selections will make worthwhile and interesting reading; they can be adapted to class discussions. Best of all, the publishers have placed this statement on the back of the title page: "Permission is hereby granted educational institutions to use any portions of this book for dramatic or radio performance." They have thus rendered a very real, and somewhat unique, service to teachers and students of American history. This is very

definitely a volume that belongs in the school and classroom library.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

Cornish Flat, New Hampshire

Sing of America. By Tom Scott. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1947. Pp. 83. \$4.00.

This handsome volume is another in the rapidly-increasing collections of folk-music in the United States. As such it deserves the attention of all students and teachers interested in the heritage of American expression.

These are the songs that people sang at work and in the gay evenings after work. Many of the songs had their origins far from the United States, but all of them were adapted to situations and circumstances that were peculiarly American. Here are the songs of the first settlers in the Appalachians and Smokies, songs that were known for centuries in the British Islands. Here are the songs sung by Americans as they spread out over a vast continent—by settlers pushing into the flatlands of Ohio, by cowboys driving their cattle along the Old Chisholm Trail, and by other restless Americans leaving behind them the Red River Valley. When men worked to build a nation, they raised their voices in song, and their music was typical of the job they were doing on the canals, railroads, and clipper ships of a past era. No music is more American than the spirituals and plantation songs of the American Negro so it is fitting that a selection of these is also included.

This is not a complete collection of our native musical background. It is not intended to be one, but it is a fine cross-section of many of the best-known and best-liked songs that are a part of our history. Others will be better known now that they appear in print with musical arrangements. If this is not the most comprehensive book on the subject, it is one of the most attractive. Words and music are on one page, and on the opposite page are notes and an

effective wood engraving by Bernard Brussel Smith that provides an artistic setting for each song.

For those who desire an original interpretation of these songs, the author sings twelve of the book's thirty-five in an album of recordings by Signature (S-6).

WILLIAM G. TYRRELL

Columbia University
New York City

Action for Unity. By Goodwin Watson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. xi, 163. \$2.00.

In the foreword we read: "This book surveys the strength of the forces of hate and takes the measure of the forces now pitted against them. It supplies a strategic guide to the war against prejudice and persecution." Powerful adversaries they are. The battalions of hate seem to be firmly entrenched over an extensive front. They fight with the stubborn resistance of warriors toughened by years of action.

The investigation reported in the book was sponsored by the Commission on Community Interrelations of the American Jewish Congress. The large-scale program of research in minority group problems was made to examine the basic assumptions and approaches being made to improve intergroup relations, to appraise the types of programs, and to suggest plans for further action-research.

The commission found that numerous organizations are working on the problem of interracial and inter-religious tensions. The many official committees appointed by the mayor or governor have been rather disappointing. More effective have been the organizations that exclude no one on the grounds of race or religion. Many public schools, churches, and other groups have programs of cultural education and brotherhood.

The activities of the agencies working to improve community relations take seven patterns: exhortation, education, participation, revelation, negotiation, contention, and prevention. It was found that preaching has little effect on conduct. The introduction of intercultural material in public school curricula is advised. It is recommended that the teachers need to be educated first of all for any school program. Over-

emphasis on the quaint qualities of ethnic groups fosters false sentimentality that may hinder effective cooperation. The study revealed a need for more research to find the conditions under which educational programs may achieve the desired outcome.

One of the conclusions of the study is that there is great need for research in finding ways to arouse interest among the American masses, the low-education, non-reading adults. The survey found the greatest complacency about negro discrimination among the least educated persons polled. The organizations working on the problem need techniques that are effective among those who most need the education and inspiration. Apparently few individuals or organizations know how to work with subcultures saturated with prejudice.

This report on what America is doing to remove racial and religious barriers is of particular interest to social studies teachers. They, more than any other group, need to be cognizant of the urgency of the problem because of their contact with the young people. Children have few prejudices except as they are forced on them by their elders. Therefore it seems that the mobilization of youth for the battle against bigotry is needed to win the war against intolerance and discrimination.

America: Its History and People. By Harold U. Faulkner and Tyler Kepner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. xvi, 949. \$2.88. Revised edition.

The revised edition keeps the original overall plan with the same six units: survey of colonial beginnings, growth from English origins to contemporary times of political democracy, industrial development, social and cultural progress, our international commitments, and contemporary history in the light of recent trends.

Changes have been made in typography and format. New techniques in cartography and graphic presentation, and some new charts and pictures have been used. Noticeable revision of suggested exercises and map studies have been made. More space has been given to international relations and the material has been extended to the post-war atomic age.

In the reviewer's opinion the advantages the

new edition has to offer over the widely used former edition are an improved general appearance, better suggested activities and reading lists, and some significant new interpretations.

Austrian Requiem. By Kurt von Schuschnigg. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1946. Pp. x, 322. \$3.50.

Here at last is Dr. Schuschnigg's *apologia pro vita sua*. The book may best be evaluated if considered as a small fragment fitting only too well in the cataclysmic mosaic which depicts the rise and fall of Nazi Germany. In candid, sincere, sometimes emotional fashion, the author chronicles the events which led to Anschluss, and tells the story of his imprisonment in Germany throughout the War of 1939.

The entire presentation is conveniently divided into three sections. The first deals with the Anschluss, the second with Austria's connections with the Major Powers before 1938, and the third is Schuschnigg's account of his confinement. The first two of these are by far the most revealing. Their comprehensive format unfolds the story in a dramatic matter-of-fact presentation. The Austrian version of the Berchtesgaden meeting between Schuschnigg and Hitler, February 11, 1938, is revealed for the first time.

The past political reflections of any statesman must by nature be an exposition and justification of that individual's previous policies. In Dr. Schuschnigg's case one is struck by his frankness. In prison he asks himself: "Did I do everything that could have been done . . . ?" "And above all was what I did right?" Certainly one may sympathize with the former chancellor in his belief that the results would have been the same no matter what course he took.

Book two presents much that is interesting but not new. The writer proceeds to emphasize the essential friendship between Austria and Hungary, two nations which shared a common history, and ironically enough, a common defeat which separated them. The most illuminating pages here are those which bring Mussolini into the sketch. In one instance an actual conversation between the Duce and Schuschnigg is recorded, a dialogue which the author indicates is accurate in so far as his

memory permits. The resilient hopes of the Austrian chancellor that Italy could prevent Anschluss—hopes which did not materialize—causes him to tag the Duce as a "fair-weather friend." The rest of this section concerns itself with the attenuation of Austria's precarious balance in Central Europe. Once again Dr. Schuschnigg makes a restrained defense of his pre-1938 policy.

The day to day account of Schuschnigg's confinement is related in fragments with a reticence that leads one to believe that there is much which could be said, but that it would be more appropriate not to expatiate on trenchant past happenings. There is an appendix which presents several transcripts of telephone conversations between Berlin and various European capitals. This documentary evidence simply bears out the chancellor's postulations on what had occurred in high places of the Third Reich preparatory to the annexation of Austria. It is presumed that this and other documents from the Berlin archives will become available for publication in the future.

Taken at face value the book is informative, and is written in such a fashion that will certainly arouse the layman's interest, if not his support. The historian may find it useful. Finally, the didactic character of the work is worth the attention of those interested in preventing another world catastrophe.

CLAUDE BABIN.

University of Miami
Coral Gables, Florida

Soldier's Album. Compiled by Colonel R. Ernest Dupuy and Lieutenant Colonel Herbert L. Bergstein. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. Pp. 173. \$5.00.

For centuries the techniques of war have progressively affected the lives of an ever-increasing number of people. By comparison the progress of society has woefully lagged. In the war recently concluded we seem to have reached the ultimate in the art of human destruction which regards neither age or nationality. It is, therefore, with this thought before us that we consider what Colonel Dupuy and Lieutenant Colonel Bergstein propose to tell us through the medium of this book.

The word "book" usually connotes a message to the reader by way of the written word. How-

ever, such is not the case with *Soldier's Album*, which contains an unprecedented tale of human despair so poignantly contrasted with ecstatic victory and so effectively captured by the unbiased eye of the combat camera.

Of notable credit to the authors is the continuity and clarity maintained in a narrative unencumbered by pages of explanatory verbiage. Equal consideration is given to components of the invasion force, thus illustrating the indispensability of any one part to the precisely coordinated plan pointed toward victory.

To one who has experienced the ravages of war, the reality of *Soldier's Album* is impressive. It carries one back to exact scenes or similar sights. Thus stripped of all false glamor, a true insight to war awaits those who need only leaf through the pages of this publication.

To declare that this is no picture to hand down to succeeding generations would be a denial of the price which this odious specter, war, exacts as its toll. If we can profit from past errors, then let us use this book as a reminder that war is no satisfactory solution to the world's ills.

PAUL NORTH.

Glenside, Pennsylvania

Latin America: Past and Present. By Russel H. Fitzgibbon and Flaud C. Wooton. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1946. Pp. 455. \$2.20.

Lost: a piece of property about 8,000,000 square miles of area, occupied by 130,000,000 people. Very valuable. Return to: the future of the Western Hemisphere. Reward: the gratitude of the world.

With this imaginary advertisement, the authors present a very interesting sales talk for the study of Latin America by the high school student. They give glimpses of fascinating stories and scenes, and they demonstrate how this part of the world touches our lives with such products as tin from Bolivia, coffee from Brazil or Central America, sugar and cocoa from Cuba, and chicle for chewing gum from Guatemala.

The reader, in the second part of the book, is taken for an airplane ride to get a panoramic view of the land and people. With the aid of

excellent pictures, a clear understanding of work, play and worship is presented.

Part III, "How Latin America Came To Be," presents a survey of the early growth of the whole area, and then the story by individual countries. Part IV contains the usual commercial geography type of treatment of products and occupations. Part V gives a very clear picture of government, both domestic and international.

The treatment of "What Latin America Thinks and Creates" is rich in human interest. Music, art, literature, recreation and education are dramatically presented in such a way as to create real appreciation.

The last chapter, which is on "Latin America and the Future," ends on this note: "Yes, being a neighbor has its responsibilities. It also has rich rewards."

Throughout the book are many teaching aids. A brief well-written summary is presented at the end of each chapter, and also selected questions framed to aid in understanding the text. References for further reading, usable activities for pupils, key words to identify, and places to locate accompany each chapter.

For more complete understanding, a much-needed glossary, with pronunciation of Spanish and Portuguese names and words, is included. The index is a very complete one.

As helps specifically for the teacher to stimulate interest and understanding, the authors suggest a large number of publications (some of them free), films, and other audio-visual aids. These would, of course, supplement the very good maps contained in the book itself. One unusual feature is the list of addresses for inter-school correspondence.

Latin America: Past and Present fills a real need for a clear and interesting presentation of the subject on a high school level. Used either as a text in a separate course or for supplementary reading, it is an excellent picture of our southern neighbors.

HOWARD R. DRAKE.

Senior High School
Lansdowne, Pennsylvania

The First Freedom. By Morris L. Ernst. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. xiv, 316. \$3.00.

In the foreword the author says: "The peace

of the world depends on human understanding and human understanding depends on the free flow, throughout the planet, of movies, radio and the printed word." No one will argue with this statement, although independent thinkers may disagree with Mr. Ernst's bias, and some of the interpretations of his book.

He has presented in detail the trend towards concentration of control of the three means of communication and the possible consequences to freedom of expression. As a crusader for freedom of speech and thought, the author points out that men struggled long and hard to free themselves from government and church control over communication, but he asserts that "concentrated economic power also acts as a restraint of thought."

Narrowing his viewpoint primarily to one aspect of restraint, namely, concentration of the media of information among a few groups, he points out facts such as these: In ten states there is not a single city with competing daily papers and only 117 cities in the whole country have competing daily newspapers.

In radio, four networks dominate broadcasting, while the movies are mainly controlled by five large companies. In many areas, newspapers own the radio stations. Mr. Ernst says, "Those who own our minds are not evil persons. They subscribe to the idea of free enterprise but only for the other business."

The author feels that as this trend continues, monopoly will result and free enterprise in communication will disappear. He raises these questions: "With 2600 dailies a few years ago, are 1700 enough today? How many will we have in 1960?" "Five movie companies own 70 per cent of the movie income of the nation. Will there be only three in 1960?" "Four networks have control over two-thirds of the radio stations of the nation. Will they control more in 1960? Will television and F.M. go the same way?"

There are many other facts given to show how newspapers have merged into chains and also how production of newsprint has been combined with publishing to increase consolidation. Three main press associations serve the news to our papers. Much of our material is syndicated and appears in many papers so that diversity is lessened. Of course it is only fair to say that the merging of many papers

has made possible many attractive features which could not have been secured by smaller papers.

The author gives a very clear picture of the consolidation of movie theaters in chains and of the vertical organization of producers, distributors and theaters. One of the solutions offered by the author is to prevent movie companies from owning the theaters. He also would have movie companies divorced from radio and television.

He suggests subsidizing small newspapers and small radio stations by lowering postage and telephone rates, and upgrading rates to larger business.

Whatever we may think about Mr. Ernst's interpretation and use of facts, the book is of great value to teachers as a clear demonstration of one aspect of large-scale business consolidation. There may also be a warning to the teacher, which he should pass on to students, to evaluate sources carefully and to treasure his freedom of thought and speech.

HOWARD R. DRAKE.

Senior High School
Lansdowne, Pennsylvania

Governments of Foreign Powers. By Philip W. Buck and John W. Masland. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947. Pp., xxii, 439. \$3.25.

Dealing as it does with governmental structures of the principal foreign powers of today, this volume fills a definite instructional need. The instructional need is not on the part of the schools alone, but on the part of the general electorate as well, for each voter in our country is now expected to weigh the significance of our national policy with reference to possible consequences abroad.

The authors recognize the implication that, ideally, the scope of the study should be broadened to include data on the governmental patterns of all the nations of the two hemispheres. The presentation of such data, however, they considered too formidable a task. Accordingly, for their study they selected seven nations, these seven being England, France, the Soviet Union, Italy, Germany, Japan, and China.

With regard to the inclusion of the three former Axis states, after calling attention to

their considerable populations, the authors write:

Though their governments are disorganized by recent defeats, it is worthwhile to analyze the pattern which is taking shape in each of them. The United States, moreover, is contributing to the reorganization of political affairs in each of these former enemy nations, and it is essential for the American citizen to appreciate these undertakings. (p. 5)

Certain omissions from the list are explained thus:

Spain, Switzerland, the Scandinavian states, the Balkans, the Baltic states, the republics of Latin America—these and others are not discussed. . . . It is . . . the great powers which carry weight in the modern world. (p. 5)

More space is devoted to the government of England than to any other, seven of the book's twenty-nine chapters being given over to a discussion of governmental practices in the mother country. An entire chapter is taken up in explaining the English legal system. This is unlike any other chapter in the book. With regard to each nation, however, there is some historical background given, then finally, a glance into the future. England's forward-looking chapter is entitled, "Prospects for Britain and the Empire-Commonwealth."

At the end of each chapter a reading list appears, and at the close of the book there is a general index.

Dr. Buck of Stanford University wrote the chapters dealing with European countries, while Dr. Masland of Dartmouth College is responsible for the chapters on Japan and China.

The book is well written and scholarly. In colleges it will find a place as collateral reading in such courses as Comparative Governments, Contemporary Problems, and International Relations.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon Teachers College
Monmouth, Oregon

Your Marriage and Family Living. By Paul H. Landis. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1946. Pp., 373. \$2.20.

Written for high school students in simple

essay style, this textbook is attractively illustrated with many photographs and graphs. Each chapter includes a summary of projects and activities which the teacher may assign or students may use for independent work on papers. There are self tests and specific references for the student and another list for the teacher, both of which include current magazine articles. In the list also are included references to fiction, biography and poetry which illustrate specific questions and situations. A complete bibliography of all references cited is given at the end of the book along with lists of films with running time and sources.

The sections and chapters are chosen because of their interest to students beginning with changes in the American family and a description of family life today in this country, town and city, followed by discussions of mate selection, successful marriage and parenthood and crises in the American family life with plans for making it better.

The tone of the book is optimistic, but it is based on social facts and the reality of family life in the United States today, presented in a way which stimulates thinking and judgments and provides data for discussions and decisions.

ESTHER McGINNIS

The Discovery of Europe: The Story of American Experience in the Old World. Edited by Philip Rahv. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947. Pp. xix, 743. \$5.00.

In his *Discovery of Europe*, Philip Rahv has assembled selections from thirty-five American writers, from Franklin and Jefferson to Thomas Wolfe and Sinclair Lewis. Each gives in letters, diary, essays, or novel his reactions to the Europe of his day, transporting the reader to England, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and Russia. And, strangely enough, as these Americans comment on the European scene, they unconsciously reveal themselves and their own national prejudices—political, religious, and social. All the selections are interesting not only to the student of history but to the general reader, and many passages from writers dead a hundred years are amazingly applicable to our present chaotic world.

For convenience, Rahv has divided his book into four sections, chronologically arranged:

Pilgrims Extraordinary, The Vaunted Scene, War and Revolution, and Between Two Wars. Even the few selections from Franklin's letters show him one of the great letter writers of all times, whether it be his scathing denunciation of British procrastination or the charming wit of his epistle to Madame Helvetius. Women will enjoy Mistress Adams' prudish horror over the French theatre as well as her descriptions of her London toilettes.

The Vaunted Scene contains some refreshingly unfamiliar material from Cooper, Melville, Emerson, Hawthorne, and Howells, together with such old favorites as *Innocents Abroad* and *Sketch Book*. Of particular interest, in view of changed world conditions are young Ticknor's enthusiasm over German universities, Cooper's analysis of French character, and Melville's horrible description of the slums of Liverpool. Henry James' satirical study of the American girl abroad illustrates the contemptuous attitude of the first of our famous expatriates, a group further represented by Randolph Bourne, Malcom Cowley, and Henry Miller.

As World War I draws nearer, we follow with Walter Hines Page those fateful events that resulted from the sinking of the *Lusitania*; we go with Colonel House to conferences with high German officials; and we accompany Ambassador Dodds around Berlin. When war at last comes, the superb reporting of John Dos Passos takes us into the actual fighting in France. Through John Reed's eyes we become spectators of the revolution against the Kerensky government and the establishment of the Soviets. Lincoln Steffens reports on the Bullitt mission to Moscow, concluding with that oft-quoted sentence: "I have been over into the future—and it works." In his fourth section, Rahv brings the record on Russia almost up to date with Edmund Wilson's description of Moscow under the Five-Year Plan.

In the last portion of the anthology, the novelists carry off the honors. A chapter from Lewis's *Dodsworth* presents an interesting contrast between European and American tourists, which becomes a penetrating analysis of the two differing civilizations. And Thomas Wolfe's London charwoman explains London's survival just as clearly as his account of Hitler's Germany shows the reasons for that nation's de-

feat. Miller's glowing description of captive Paris gives one a feeling of thankfulness that, no matter how, that city did not meet the fate of London and Berlin and Stalingrad. The chapter from *For Whom the Bell Tolls* casts its light on the Spanish Civil War with the advantage, of course, going to the Communist side.

Altogether, Rahv's anthology is unusually informative, unfailingly interesting, and intellectually stimulating. It makes one feel the continuity of the spirit that is distinctively American by letting that spirit react to conditions and events in other countries. By that process we gain a clearer understanding of other nations, of ourselves, and of our place in the stream of world history.

DOROTHY CATHELL

Abington Senior High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

The Wallaces of Iowa. By Russell Lord. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947. Pp. xiii, 615. \$5.00.

The years of the three Wallaces, "Uncle Henry," "Honest Harry," and Henry Agard, cover a span of time from the coming of honest, thrifty Scotch-Irish Covenanters to the farms of western Pennsylvania to the Congress that debated the loan to Greece and our policy to Russia. As the author speeds the projection of an exposure covering three generations, he displays a picture of many characters and scenes associated with the Wallaces. These men were closely identified with many great American movements.

The first Henry Wallace was reared on a farm, studied theology, served in the Union armies, preached in the middle West, bought land in Iowa. He seemed to have a knack of making profits from investments in farm land. It was at the rather advanced age of 60 that he really "arrived" as the founder of a leading American farm paper.

His son, Harry, not quite so articulate as his father, at an early age went to farming and teaching agriculture at the land grant college. While he served as a contributor and editor on his father's farm paper, Harry's sound business management probably was his greatest contribution to the journal's success. As Secretary of Agriculture under President Harding,

he fought an up-hill battle to have government action to boost farmers' incomes.

His son, Henry A., when a boy, developed an interest in plant improvement. After he was married, Henry worked on *Wallace's Farmer* as a commuter from his farm. In early morning and evening he looked after his hybrid corn seed fields and his dairy herd. His young wife delivered the milk to the customers in town.

All of the Wallaces were hard workers. They combined rich cultural interests, simple living, and a deep concern for people in less fortunate circumstances.

The author gives much attention to the policies and acts of Henry A. Wallace after he became associated with F.D. Roosevelt and the New Deal. He offers an objective, yet sympathetic interpretation of the personality and views of Wallace in the offices of Secretary of Agriculture, Vice-President, and Secretary of Commerce. It is hard to see how any one could dispute the brilliance and soundness of his leadership in the fields of scientific agriculture and agricultural economics. It is when he wanders into other fields that he is a controversial figure.

The book is interesting and accurate historically. Probably more suitable for the college library, it has supplementary material for secondary school social studies. Unquestionably it should be in all rural high school libraries to give country boys and girls a better understanding of rural problems and the inspiration of an intimacy with men interested in improving the lot of rural folks.

American History. By Howard E. Wilson and Wallace E. Lamb. New York: American Book Company, 1947. Pp. xii, 594, liv. Illustrated. \$2.40.

This is a junior high school textbook organized into eight units. Units One and Two cover in chronological order, beginning with 1492, discovery, settlement, struggle for independence, the War of 1812, and the independence of the Latin American Republics. Unit Three is on the period of Washington, Jefferson, the trans-Allegheny movement, and Andrew Jackson. The next deals with "The Industrial Northeast," "The Land of Cotton," and the Civil War. Little space is devoted to military events. The next units are more topical than chrono-

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logical in their arrangement. Unit Five reviews progress in society, science and invention, and in literature and the arts. Unit Six is on industrial growth and its effects; Unit Seven on our nation as a world power; and the last on the United States today.

The foreword claims three unusual features for the text. The first is that it tells about many persons, including political leaders, railroad builders, inventors, writers, scientists, business leaders, and athletes. Another emphasis is on social history. It aims to give a living account of actual people. Third, it stresses the international relations of the United States.

The biographical sketches are vivid and inspiring. An appeal to the adolescent's love of adventure is made in an effective manner. Teachers will generally agree that it is sound to include how people lived, how they played, how they made a living, and the like, in junior high history.

In the book's treatment of our relations with other nations, there is some question in the reviewer's mind as to whether this section does not contain material more of the senior high

school type. One does not sense the same heroic and appealing spirit found in the other parts of the book. Granting that teachers should not try to make wars romantic or overdo military heroes and heroism, it seems that they should, perhaps, give more recognition to the sacrifices and valor of our fighting men. Also, could we in some way dramatize our pioneers for peace as the successors of the brave and daring military men of early America?

The style is engaging and simple. Many quotations and anecdotes add color. At the same time the material is "meaty" with many concepts and understandings.

A time line is at the beginning of each chapter. The maps are not too intricate. There is a good selection of pictures, diagrams, and charts. The supplementary reading lists are ample, adapted to the age level, and up to date.

The study activities at the end of each chapter give evidence of having been tested in classes. They seem to be the kind that will "go across." In this connection one wonders whether activities lists should not have suggestions on the use of state and regional history. While many teachers are conscious of the possibilities of the inclusion of persons and events of their particular part of the United States, a far greater number need suggestions and direction.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Who Makes Our Foreign Policy? By Blair Bolles. Headline Series, No. 62. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 94. 35 cents.

This pamphlet, written for laymen, and high school and college students and teachers, furnishes a guide to the machinery of fashioning foreign policy. It presents a brief survey of the historical development of our foreign policy, explaining the roles of the President, his executive officers in and out of the Cabinet, the Congress and its committees, foreign governments and diplomats, pressure groups, and the people.

The author shows how these various individuals and groups tend toward both conflict and cooperation. He analyzes the functioning of the foreign-policy-making system, indicating its weaknesses and strengths and offering a number of provocative suggestions for its im-

provement. The author evaluates the information services of the State Department and believes that the public will not be well-informed about United States foreign policy until there is an Office of Public Affairs for the whole Government instead of just for the State Department. The pamphlet concludes with a short article on the purposes and practices of the State Department's Office of Public Affairs.

Our National Debt and Interest Rates. By the Committee on Public Debt Policy. National Debt Series No. 3. New York: Committee on Public Debt Policy, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 19. 25 cents.

The purpose of these studies is to increase public understanding of the difficult problems of the debt and to formulate a sound plan for its management. A wise public debt policy should include as its objectives the fostering of high employment and high total income for the country, continued prosperity, avoidance of inflation as well as of deflation, reasonable provision for reducing the debt, and encouraging individual initiative.

Proceedings of the Thirty-Eighth, Thirty-Ninth and Fortieth Annual Meetings of the Life Insurance Association of America. New York: December 1, 1944, December 14, 1945, May 7 and December 13, 1946. Pp. 182.

Recording the panel discussions and addresses of life insurance executives and public officials, this pamphlet also includes a bibliography on life insurance, classified under the following headings: General Pamphlets, Government—Federal and State, Group Insurance, Health and Vital Statistics, Insurance Supervision, Investments, Law and Legislation, Life Insurance, Taxation, War, and Miscellaneous. At the end of the booklet is the Forty Year Cumulative Index to the Proceedings of the Life Insurance Association of America 1907-1946 inclusive.

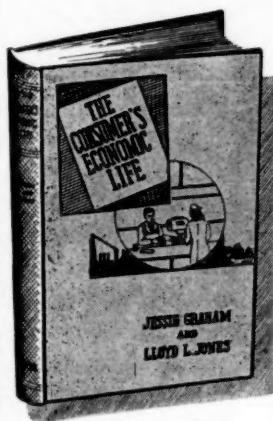
The American Competitive Enterprise System. Washington, D. C.: The Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1947. Pp. 24. 10 cents.

A brief description and analysis of the American competitive enterprise system, of the relation between government and business and of the prospects for the future are presented in this pamphlet, which admits imperfections in our present economic society but advocates

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their correction without destroying incentives and sanctions and urges the continuance of the present voluntary system. An annotated bibliography is appended.

At the Crossroads. Speech Delivered by the Prime Minister (Salazar) at the Meeting of the "União Nacional" in Lisbon on 9th November, 1946. Lisbon: Editions of the S. N. I., 1946. Pp. 23.

At the Crossroads indicates the choice which a government must make when confronted with the problem of post-war national policy. That solution of the problem is satisfactory which ensures the existence of a strong government under a stable Headship of the State, both of which are accepted by the mass of citizens when they feel their liberties and essential interests to be safeguarded.

In his concern with the international scene and the rise of the masses, the Prime Minister warns that Russia has today every possibility of totally dominating Europe, and that she is able to do so without the greater part of the Continent even being able to fight. Furthermore, in his judgment, the Soviet rulers are not bound by any logic except that of their own

interests. He deplores two bolshevist sentiments: the demoralization and subservience of the élite and the supremacy of numbers.

In every modern state, the main concern will be the better distribution of wealth. He concludes that when a country has found, as has Portugal, a suitable line of thought and of political action, based on sound experience, it is unwise to change it and to pay attention to voices proclaiming systems of salvation.

The Control of Atomic Energy. Proposals Before the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission and Unofficial Plans. International Conciliation, September, 1946. No. 423. New York: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Intercourse and Education, 1946. Pp. 308-438. Single copy 5 cents.

In the meetings of the United Nations Commission on Atomic Energy, discussions dealt with the proposals of Mr. Bernard Baruch, representative of the United States, of Mr. Andrei A. Gromyko of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and of Mr. Herbert V. Evatt of Australia.

The texts of these official statements are presented in this pamphlet, which also contains the concrete draft conventions of two unofficial groups—the University of Chicago Committee and the Carnegie Endowment Committee on Atomic Energy.

Dr. James T. Shotwell, Director of the Division of Economics and History of the Carnegie Endowment and Chairman of its Committee on Atomic Energy, is responsible for the introduction which outlines developments to date.

World Organization. An Annotated Bibliography. Woodrow Wilson Memorial Library. New York: The Woodrow Wilson Foundation, December, 1946. Pp. 28. 10 cents.

This bibliography lists books, documents and pamphlet commentaries concerning international conferences and organizations, such as the United Nations, Specialized Agencies, and others, collections of international documents, directories of agencies, bibliographies, and publications available from the Woodrow Wilson Foundation.

Our National Debt After Great Wars. By the Committee on Public Debt Policy. National Debt Series No. 1. New York: Committee on Public Debt Policy, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 12. Single copy 25 cents.

Prepared by the late Brigadier-General Leonard P. Ayres and reviewed by a committee of businessmen, bankers, insurance executives, and economists, this pamphlet is the first of a series of reports on the public debt, subsidized by a grant from the Falk Foundation. The purpose of these publications is to determine the policy for managing the public debt so as to preserve the nation's financial stability and to encourage a high level of business and employment.

NAM Looks at Cartels. Positions Formulated by the Committee on International Economic Relations and Approved by the Board of Directors together with an Analysis of the Economic Aspects of Cartels Prepared by the Research Department. November 1946. New York: National Association of Manufacturers, 1946. Pp. 62. No price listed.

This pamphlet formally presents the official position of the National Association of Manu-

facturers. Mr. Herbert H. Schell, Chairman of the International Economic Relations Committee, states in the Introduction that both government and private cartels are inimical to the very existence of free, competitive, private enterprise. Those countries whose industrialists advocate cartels and monopolies are unwittingly laying the foundation for government control of industry and nationalization of industry.

Germany—Nation or No-Man's Land. By James P. Warburg. Foreign Policy Association. Headline Series No. 60. November-December 1946. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 64. \$35.

An extremely readable analysis of the problems of the four powers in occupying Germany and in reaching agreement on a peace settlement there, this booklet contributes to the public understanding of the German problem.

The Athenian Ephebic Oath of Allegiance in American Schools and Colleges. By Fletcher Harper Swift. University of California Publications in Education 1947, Volume 11, No. 1. Pp. 30. 50 cents.

This monograph has a fourfold purpose: to show the place accorded the Athenian Ephebic Oath in American secondary schools and colleges, to guide youth organizations by describing the organization of the Ephebian Society of Los Angeles, to publicize the authentic text of the Athenian Ephebic Oath, unknown prior to 1932, and to advocate the fitness of the Athenian Ephebic Oath as a universal citizens' oath. A bibliography of the Ephebia includes published and unpublished sources.

A Report of the Committee on a Federal Department of Health, Education and Security. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education and National Social Welfare Assembly, 1947. Pp. viii, 58. 50 cents.

The purpose of the Committee is to determine whether the creation of an executive Department of Health, Education and Security, with a Cabinet officer as its chief, is in the public interest. The report contains a history of the concept of such a Federal Department, the arguments for and against its establishment, the Committee's conclusions and recommendations, and a draft of a bill which incorporates its views.

The New Polish-German Border Safeguard of Peace. By Stefan Arski. Washington, D. C.: The Polish Embassy, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 64.

This booklet presents to the American reader the problem of the Polish-German frontier, which involves not only the future relations of Poland and Germany but of the entire world, including the United States. This booklet upholds the fairness of the solution adopted by the Big Three at Potsdam which moved the Polish-German border westward to the Oder-Neisse River. Even if the Potsdam solution were not the best possible one, the author believes it should none the less be upheld to avoid lending encouragement to a recently defeated German nationalism and imperialism. He regards the Potsdam solution as a safeguard of peace.

Russia Seen from Within: An Account of a Relief Mission Visit. By Peter Grimm.

Russia and the World: A Soviet Review of Diplomacy. By Max M. Laserson. International Conciliation, No. 429, March 1947. New York: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1947. Pp. 118-163. 5 cents.

Mr. Grimm reports that credit was given to the American people when the relief goods were distributed, and that he was not shadowed in his walks and talks in Russia. He observed a very low standard of living in Russia—poverty and bad housing. All church properties are subject to a very low tax, but Russian priests and ministers are better paid by their congregations than are their American colleagues.

For a considerable period Russia will not be capable of waging aggressive warfare, but she wants to get all she can short of war. The author suggests as a solution that Americans do not permit themselves to be irritated or provoked. Such a course will wear down all opposition.

Professor Laserson discusses the production by Soviet scholars of the first three volumes of a general history of world diplomacy, written from Russia's own standpoint, and combined with a comprehensively written thousand-year-long history of her own diplomacy from Igor to Stalin.

Understanding Society

By HOWARD W. ODUM

*Kenan Professor of Sociology
University of North Carolina*

Written by one of America's foremost sociologists, this new text for introductory courses in sociology presents a logical and comprehensive description of society and social behavior. It is distinguished by its modern point of view and up-to-date material, its careful treatment of the concepts of regionalism and technicways, and its sound social theory. Over 200 maps, charts, and photographs illustrate the text.

Published in August

\$5.00

The Macmillan Company

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

American Sea Power Since 1775. Edited by Allan Westcott. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1947. Pp. viii, 609. \$5.00.

A group of United States Naval Academy professors present in one volume the part played by our navy, its significance in our foreign relations, and its future place in our national defense.

United States of America: A History. By Robert E. Riegel and Helen Haugh. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947. Pp. 852. Illustrated. \$2.92.

A new American history textbook for the senior high school.

The Way of the South toward the Regional Balance of America. By Howard W. Odum. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. 350. \$3.00.

An interestingly written book on the natural richness, folk culture and regional attitudes, inter-racial relations, and place of in the American pattern.

The Epic of Freedom. By John T. Flynn. Philadelphia: Fireside Press, 1947. Pp. 127. \$2.00.

A small volume with episodes of the development of democratic heritage in England and early America.

Handbook for Remedial Reading. By William Kottmeyer. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1947. Pp. 179. Illustrated. \$2.24. Written for the classroom teacher.

Economic Principles and Modern Practice. By Henry R. Mussey and Elizabeth Donnan. New York: Ginn and Company, 1947. Pp. x, 834. \$4.50.

Second edition of a college textbook.

The Problem of Reducing Vulnerability to Atomic Bombs. By Ansley J. Coale. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1947. Pp. 116. \$2.00.

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The City of Women. By Ruth Landes. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. 248. \$3.00.

This book, written in a popular vein, about the strange religion of Brazilian Negroes is based on material gathered on an anthropological field trip supported by Columbia University.

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The sixth and concluding volume of a series on the history of World War II.

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The historical background of the peoples and politics of more than 33 countries is brought up to the present.

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The author, a professor of education, writes on educational problems without using the usual academic jargon.

China: A Short History. By Owen and Eleanor Lattimore. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1947. Pp. 218. \$3.00.

A survey of the history of China.

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Units on sex education, designed for kindergarten through to junior college.

A Dictionary of International Affairs. By A. M. Hyamson. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1947. Pp. 353. \$3.75.

An encyclopedia-type reference book on international affairs, with chief emphasis on developments since World War I.

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